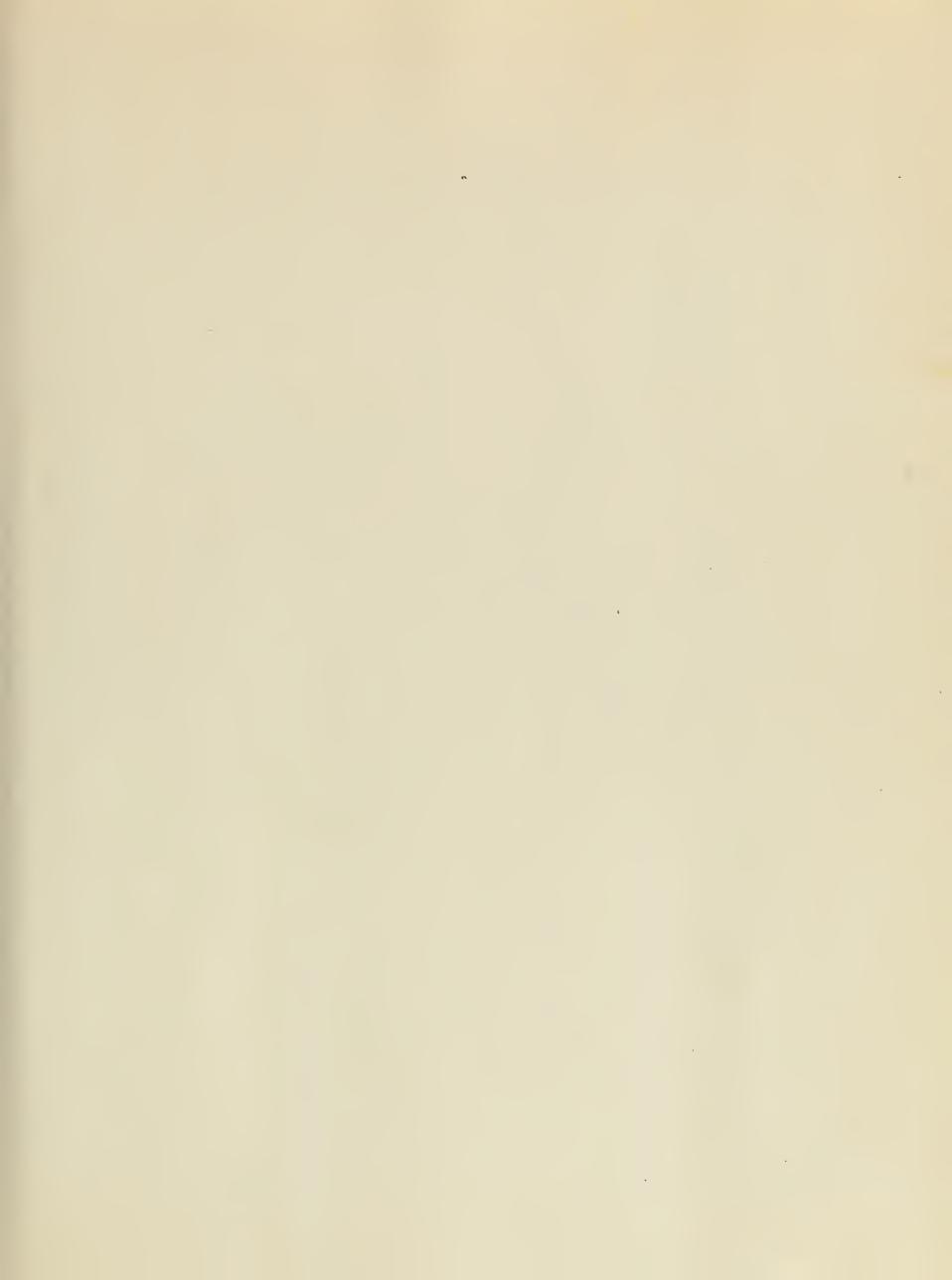


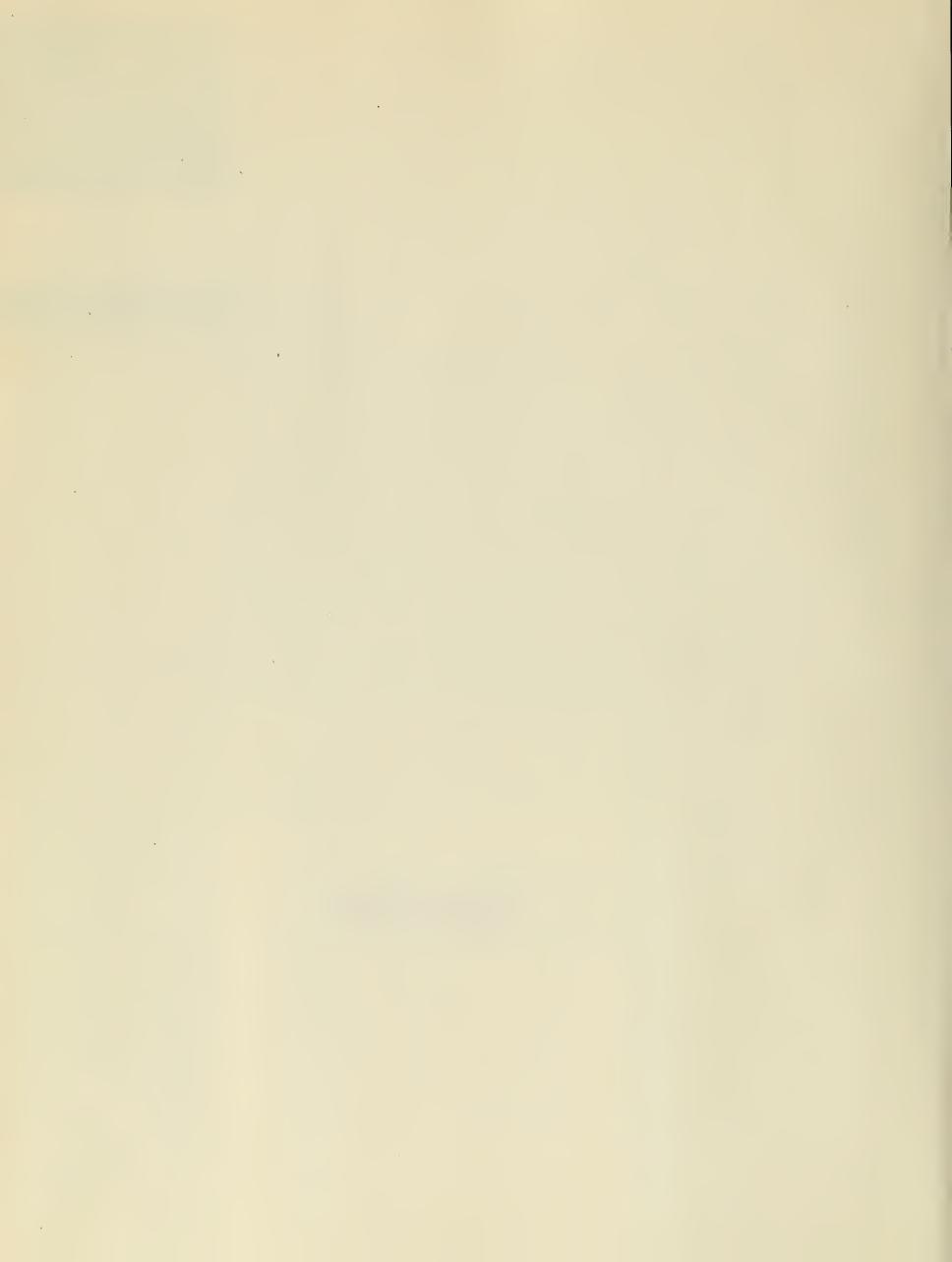
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Lecture notes on the theory of ell

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# Lecture Notes on the Theory of Elliptic Partial Differential Equations

by

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QA 374 M67

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We list here some of the material whose knowledge is assumed in this course.

1. Definition of a Banach space.

Linear space: Have x+y and c•x (c a number) defined for all x,y in the space with

A. (i) x+y = y+x, (ii) (x+y) + z = x+(y+z), (iii)  $\exists$  a  $\theta$   $\Rightarrow x+\theta = x$  for all x, (iv) given  $x \exists y \Rightarrow x+y = \theta$ 

B. (v) (cd) • x = c • x + d • x, (vi) c(x+y) = c • x+c • y, (vii) c • (d • x) = (cd) • x, (viii) l • x = x.

THEOREM 1:  $\Theta$  is unique, -x is unique,  $0 \cdot x = \theta$ ,  $(-1) \cdot x = -x$ , -(-x) = x,  $c \cdot \theta = \theta$ , if  $c \cdot x = \theta$  and  $c \neq 0$ , then  $x = \theta$ ; if  $c \cdot x = \theta$  and  $x \neq \theta$ , then c = 0.

DEFINITION: A Banach space is a complete linear metric space P(x,y)  $= P(x-y; \theta) \text{ and } P(c \cdot x; \theta) = |c| \cdot P(x, \theta). \text{ The distance } P(x, \theta)$ is called the norm of x and is denoted by ||x||.

THEOREM 2: (a)  $|| x || \ge 0$ , the equality holding  $\langle x \Rightarrow x \Rightarrow \theta \rangle$ 

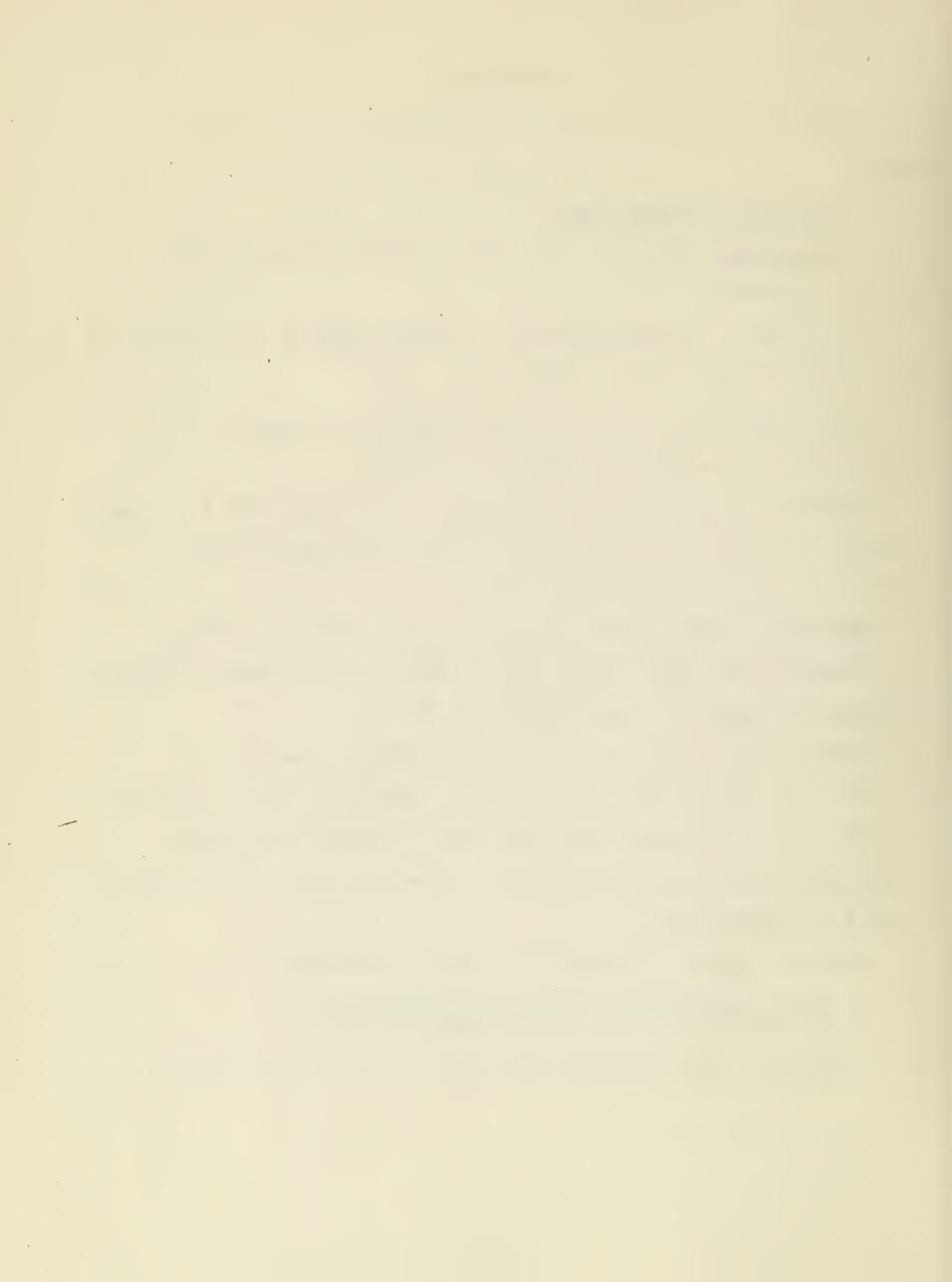
- (b)  $|| c \cdot x || = |c| \cdot || x || \cdot (c) ||x+y|| \le || x || + || y || \cdot$
- (d) If E is a linear space with a norm defined on it satisfying

  (a), (b), (c), and we define  $\mathcal{P}(x,y) = ||x-y||$ , then  $\mathcal{P}$  is a metric and E is a Banach space.

EXAMPLES:  $C_S$ ,  $M_S$ ,  $L_p(\mu, S)$ , (S a set,  $\mu$  a measure).

2. Linear transformations, operators and functionals.

DEFINITIONS: Linear manifold, closed linear manifold, linear function,



linear transformation, (linear) operator, linear functional.

THEOREM 1: Suppose T is a linear transformation whose domain is the whole space and suppose T is continuous at one point. Then T is an operator.

THEOREM 2: If T is an operator, there is an M such that  $||T(x)|| \le M \cdot ||x||$  for all x.

DEFINITION: If T is an operator, 
$$||T|| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{||T(x)||}{||x||}$$
.

THEOREM 3: Suppose each  $T_n$  is an operator (from B to  $B_1$ ) and  $T_n(x)$  converges (in  $B_1$ ) to something for each x. If we define T by the equation  $T(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} T_n(x)$ , then T is an operator,  $||T_n||$  is uniformly bounded, and  $n \to \infty$ 

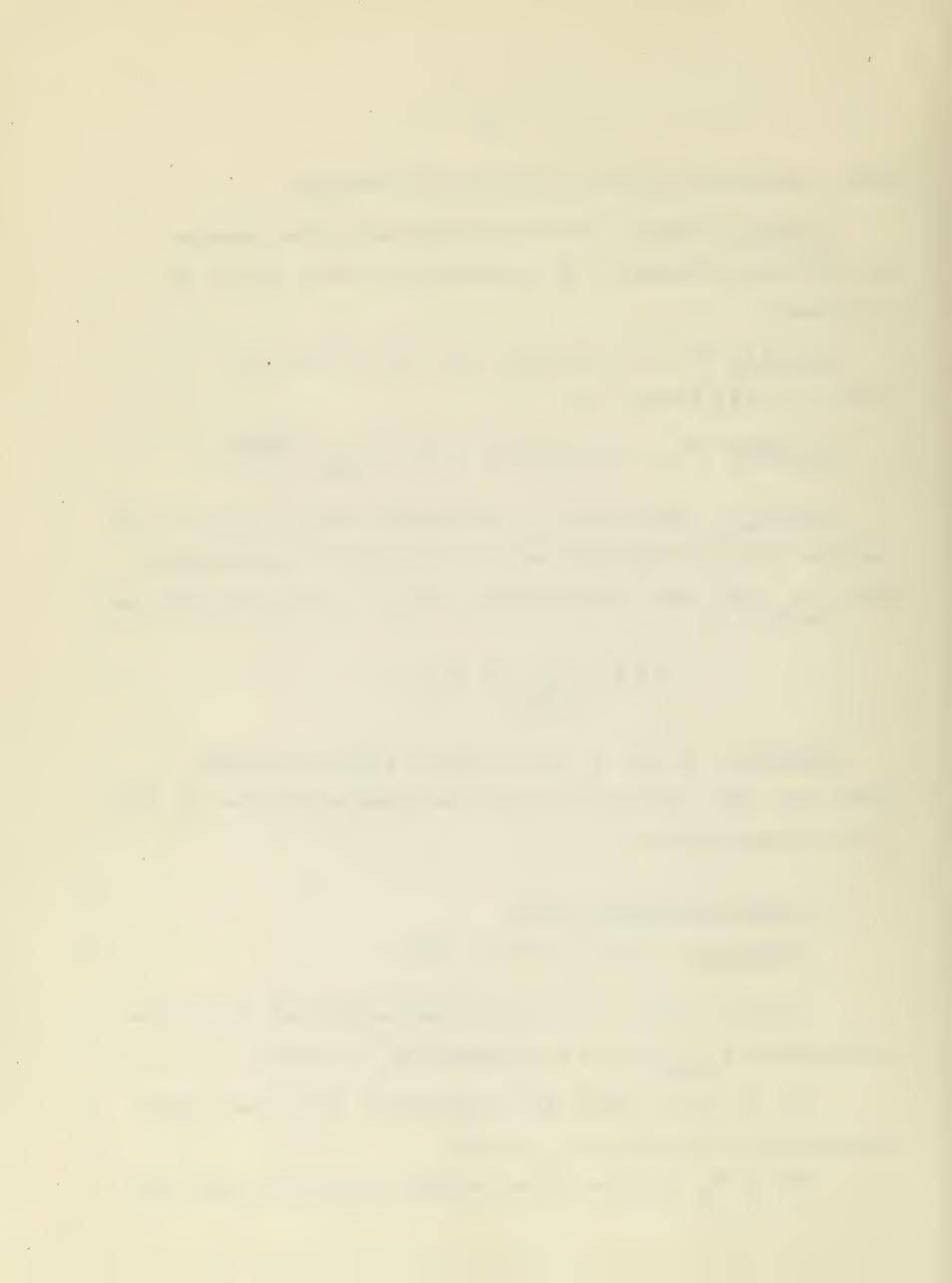
$$||T|| \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf ||T_n||$$
.

THEOREM 4: If each  $T_n$  is an operator,  $\|T_n\|$  is uniformly bounded, and  $T_n(x)$  converges for an everywhere dense set of points x. Then  $T_n(x)$  converges for each x.

## 3. Hahn-Banach Extension Theorem.

LEMMA 1: (a) If M is a closed linear manifold and  $x_1$  is not in M, then  $d(x_1,M) = \inf_{x \in M} ||x-x_1|| > 0$  (Complement of M is open).

- (b) If  $M_1 \cap M_2 = \{\Theta\}$ , then each element in  $M_1 + M_2$  has a unique representation in the form  $x_1 + x_2$  (obvious).
  - (c) If  $M_0$  is a closed linear manifold, and  $x_1$  is not in  $M_0$ , then



 $M_1 = M_0 + \lambda x_1$  is a closed linear manifold.

LIMMA 2: If f is a bounded linear function on a linear manifold M, there is a unique continuous extension  $\overline{f}$  to  $\overline{M}$  and  $\overline{f}$  is bounded with the same bound as f.

LFMA 3: Suppose E is a real Banach space; suppose f is a bounded linear function on a closed linear manifold  $M_0(CE)$ , suppose  $x_1$  is not in  $M_0$ , and  $M_1 = M_0 + \{\lambda x_1\}$ . Then A a linear function  $f_1$  on  $M_1$  such that

 $f_1(x) = f(x)$  for x on M,  $|f_1(x)| \le ||f||_{M} \cdot ||x||$  for x on M.

LEM A 4: Result of Lemma 3 for E a complex Banach space.

DEFINITION: A separable space.

THEOREM 1 (Hahn-Banach Extension Theorem): Suppose E is a real or complex Banach space, M is a linear manifold in E, f is a linear function defined on M with  $|f(x)| \le M \cdot ||x||$  for all  $x \in M$ . Then  $\exists$  a linear functional F(x) on  $E \ni F(x) = f(x)$  on M and  $|F(x)| \le M ||x||$  for all x on E.

First proof for a separable space E. Remarks about non-separable spaces, transfinite processes, etc. Examples of non-separable spaces.

THEOREM 2: For any  $x_0$  in  $E_0$ ,  $\exists$  a linear functional f such that  $f(x_0) = ||x_0|| \text{ and } ||f|| = 1.$ 

4. Linear functionals on certain spaces.



THEOREM 1: (a) If f is a linear functional on  $E_N$ , then

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i x^i$$
 and  $||f|| = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} |a_i|^2\right]^{1/2}$ 

(b) If f is a linear functional on  $m_N$ , then  $f(x) = \sum a_i x^i$ ,  $||f|| = \sum |a_i|$ .

THEOREM 2: If f is a linear functional on  $C_S$ , S = [a,b],  $\exists$  a y(t) of bounded variation

$$f(x) = \int_{a}^{b} x(t)dy(t) \cdot ||f|| = V_{a}^{b}(y) \cdot$$

IEMMA 1: If  $\mu$  is a measure over set S, S is measurable  $\mu$  and S =  $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} S_n$  where each  $S_n$  is measurable  $\mu$  and  $\mu(S_n) < \omega$ , then the finite step functions are everywhere dense in  $L_p(S,\mu)$  for each  $p \ge 1$ .

THEOREM 3: If S is as in Lemma 1 and p > 1 and f is a linear functional on  $L_p$ , then  $\exists$  a y  $\cdot$   $L_q$ , where  $q = \frac{p}{p-1} \left( \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{p} = 1 \right)$ , such that

$$f(x) = \int_{S} x(t)y(t)d\mu(t)$$
,  $||f|| = \left(\int_{S} |y(t)|^{q} d\mu\right)^{1/q}$ 

for any representatives x(t), y(t) of x and y.

PROBLEM 1: Find the forms of the most general linear functionals on (a)  $\ell_1$ , (b)  $\ell_p$ , (c)  $\ell_0$ , specifying the norm in each case. Here  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...) of  $\ell_0$  and  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...) of  $\ell_0$  and  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...) of  $\ell_0$  and  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...) of  $\ell_0$  and  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...) of  $\ell_0$  and  $\ell_0$  is the subspace of elements  $\ell_1$ ,  $\ell_2$ , ...)

PROBLEM 2: If S is as in Lemma 1, f is a linear functional on  $L_1(S,\mu)$ , then  $\vec{\bf J}$  a y(t) which is bounded and measurable on S such that



 $f(x) = \int_{S} x(t)y(t)d\mu$ ; also ||f|| = ess sup |y(t)| .

### 5. Miscellaneous.

THEOREM.1: Suppose G is a closed linear manifold which is a proper subset of a linear manifold D in a Banach space B. Then, for each  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  on  $x_0 \in D \ni ||x_0|| = 1$  and  $||x_0 - x|| \ge 1 - \epsilon$  for all x in G.

DEFINITIONS: A set of vectors spans a linear manifold M. M is of finite dimensionality. The dimension of M. Linearly independent set.

Minimal set of vectors spanning a linear manifold of finite dimension.

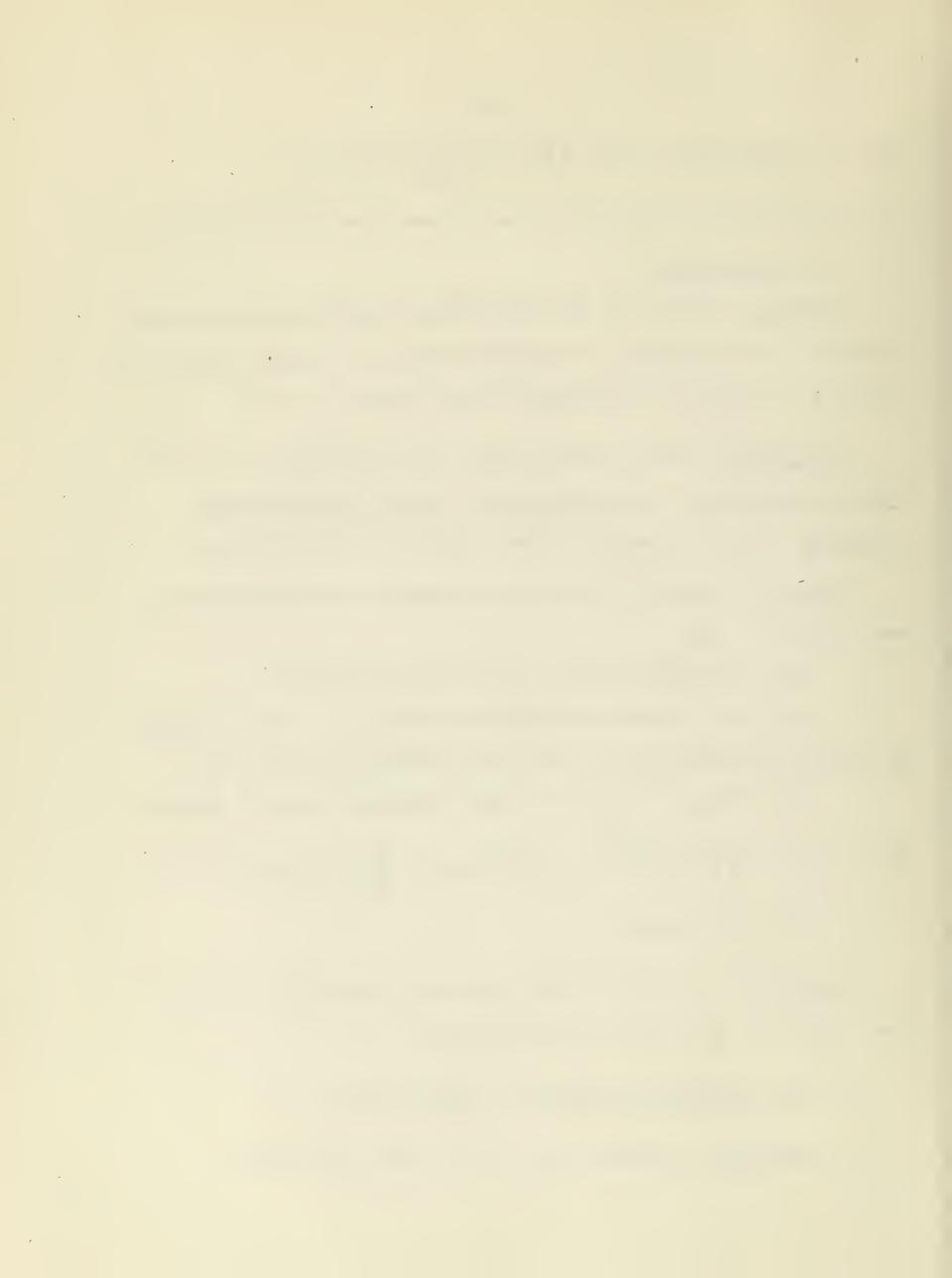
THEOREM 2: Suppose M is a finite dimensional linear manifold in a Banach space E. Then

- (a) Any minimal set for M is linearly independent.
- (b) If 2 linearly independent sets span M, then each vector of each set can be expressed in terms of the vectors of the other set.
- (c) If  $x_1$ , ...,  $x_k$  are linearly independent and span M, then  $\exists a c > 0 \ni c \left(\sum |\lambda_i|^2\right)^{1/2} \leq \|\sum \lambda_i x_i\| \leq \sum_{i=1}^k |\lambda_i| \cdot \|x_i\| .$ 
  - (d) M is closed.

THEOREM 3: If M is not finite dimensional, the set of x in M where  $\|x\| \le 1$  is not (sequentially) compact.

6. Weak convergence of elements in a Banach space.

DEFINITION: Conjugate space B\* of linear functionals.



THEOREM 1: If  $x \in B$  and F(f) = f(x) for every  $f \in B^*$ , then F is a linear functional on  $B^*$  and  $||F|| = ||x||_B$ .

DEFINITION: Reflexive space.

THEOREM 2: Suppose  $\{x_n\}$  is a sequence of elements  $\exists |f(x_n)| \leq M_f$  for every n and every f. Then  $\|x_n\|$  are uniformly bounded.

PROBLEM 3: Prove Theorem 2. Hint: Use the method of proof of the theorem on the limit of operators, the space being B\*.

DEFINITION: x - x weakly in B.

DEFINITION: "Weak neighborhoods", convergence in a topological space.

THEO.EM 3: (a) If  $x_n \rightarrow x$  then  $x_n \rightarrow x$ 

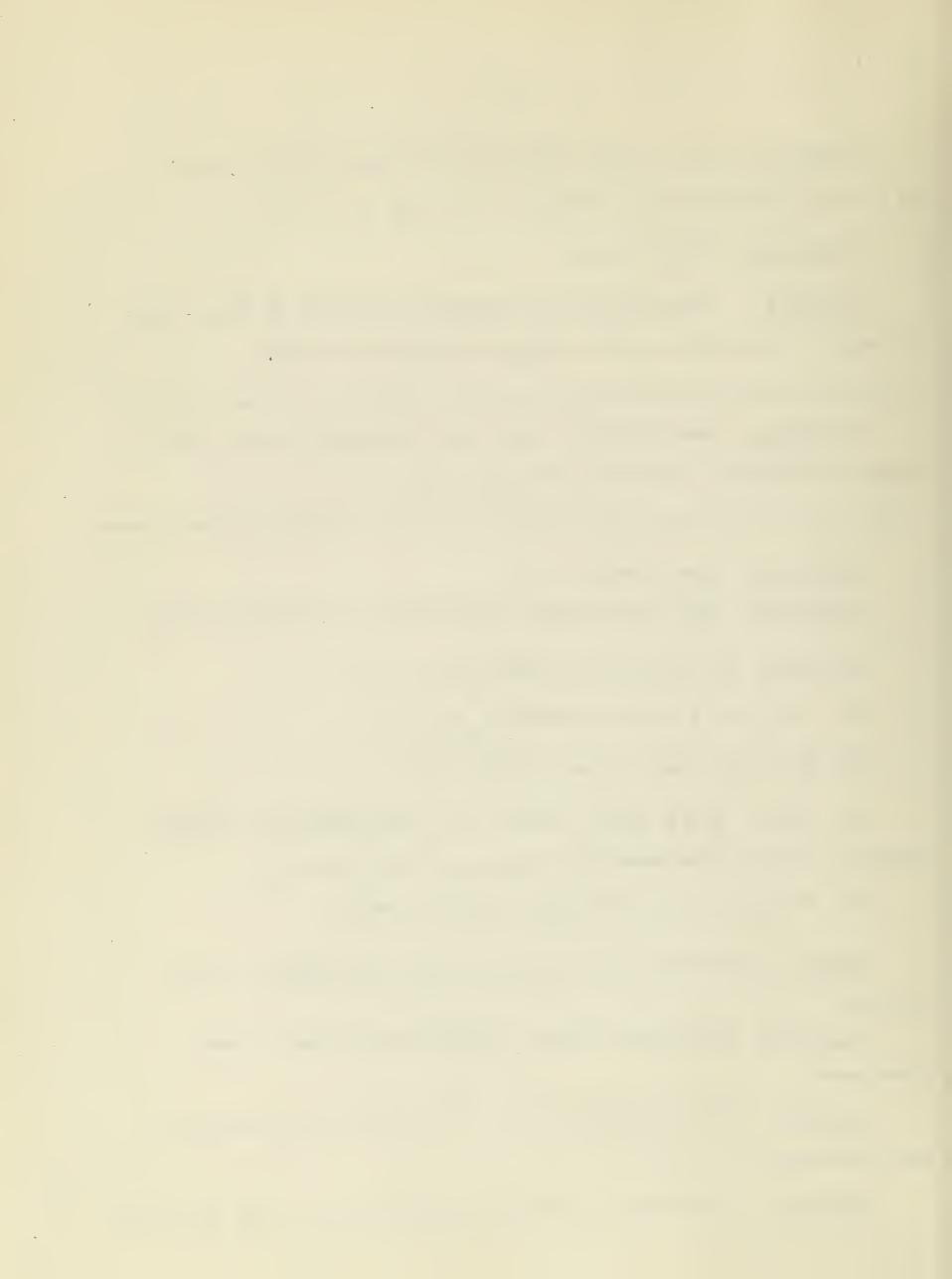
- (b) If  $x_n \rightarrow x$  any subsequence  $x_k \rightarrow x$
- (c) If  $x_n \rightarrow x$  and  $x_n \rightarrow y$ , then x = y
- - (e) If  $x_n x_0$ , then  $||x_n||$  uniformly bounded.

REMARK: A Banach space is a "Hausdorff space" with respect to weak topology.

DEFINITION: Weak Cauchy sequence. Complete with respect to weak convergence.

THEOREM 4: If B is reflexive, then B is complete with respect to weak convergence.

THEOREM 5: A necessary and sufficient condition that  $x_n \rightarrow x_0$  is that



 $\|x_n\|$  uniformly bounded and  $f(x_n) \longrightarrow f(x_0)$  for an everywhere dense set of f.

CONOLIARY 1: If B\* is separable, any bounded sequence contains a weak

CO OLLARY 2: If, also, B is reflexive, each bounded sequence contains a subsequence which converges weakly to some element in B.

THEOMEM 6: (a)  $x_n \to x$  in  $L_p(S,\mu)$  (p > 1),  $\longleftrightarrow |x_n|$  is uniformly bounded and  $\int_e x_n(t) d\mu \to \int_e x(t) d\mu$  for each measurable e with  $\mu(e) < \infty$  .

(b) If S is  $R_N$  and  $\mu$  is Lebesgue measure  $x_n \to x$  in  $L_p(S,\mu)$  <--> the conditions in (a) hold where e is any cell with rational vertices.

THEOREM 7 (Remark): If S = [a,b],  $x_n \to x$  in  $C(S) \longleftrightarrow \|x_n\|$  are uniformly bounded and  $x_n(t) \to x(t)$  for each t.

THEOREM 8: (a)  $L_p(R_N, m)$  is reflexive and separable for each p > 1.

(b) The same is true if  $R_N$  is replaced by a domain  $G \subset R_N$ .

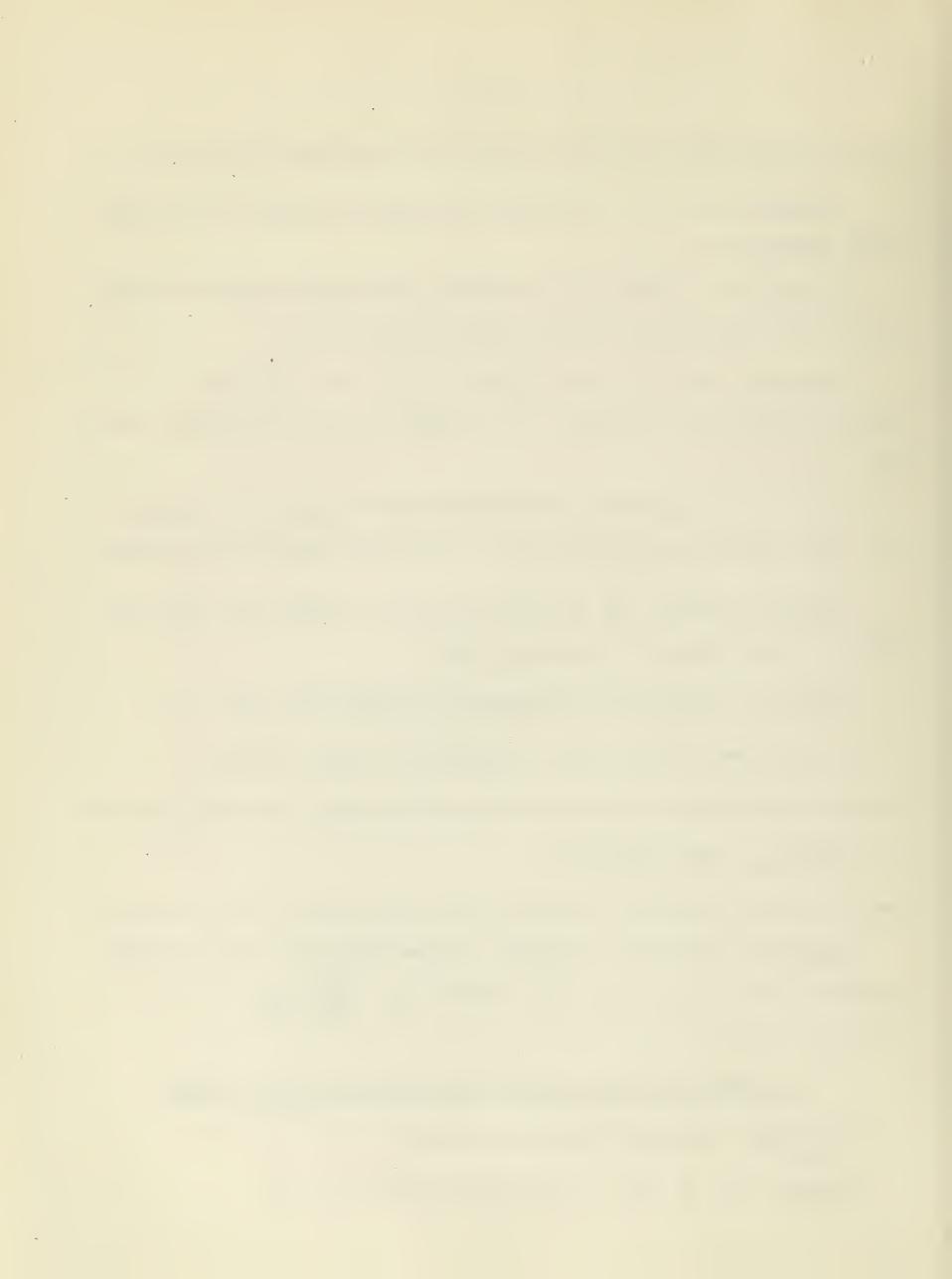
PROBLEM 4: Prove Theorem 8.

THEOREM 9: Closed linear manifolds are also closed with respect to weak convergence; i.e. if  $x_n \rightarrow x_0$ ,  $\exists$  a sequence  $y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ni}x_i$   $\ni y_n \rightarrow x_0$ .

7. Completely continuous operators; eigenvalues; the Riesz theory.

DEFINITION: Completely continuous operators.

THEOREM 1: If T and T are operators from B to B,



each  $T_n$  is completely continuous and  $\|T_n-T\| \longrightarrow 0$ , then T is completely continuous.

THEOREM 2: If  $T_1$  is an operator from B to  $B_1$  and  $T_2$  is one from B to  $B_2$ , and one of  $T_1$  or  $T_2$  is completely continuous, then  $T_2T_1$  is completely continuous.

THEOREM 3: If  $T_1, \dots, T_n$  are completely continuous from B to  $B_1$  and  $T = \sum_i c_i T_i$ , then T is completely continuous from B to  $B_1$ .

From now on, confine ourselves to operators from B to B.

EXAMPLES: 1. B = C(S), S = [a,b]. Tx = y, y(s) = 
$$\int_a^b K(s,t)x(t)dt$$
  
K, continuous for a < s < b, a < t < b.

2. Same B, same notation, 
$$y(s) = \int_a^b \frac{K(s,t)x(t)dt}{|s-t|^{\alpha}}$$
,  $0 < \alpha < 1$ .

Proof: Define  $T_n x = y_n$  defined by

$$y_n(s) = \int_a^b K_n(s,t)x(t)dt, K_n(s,t) = \frac{K(s,t)}{|s-t|^{\alpha}} if |s-t| \ge \frac{1}{n}$$

$$n^{\alpha} K(s,t) if |s-t| \le \frac{1}{n}.$$

$$|y_{n}(s)-y(s)| \leq \int_{\mathbf{T}_{n}(s)} \frac{1}{|s-t|^{\alpha}} - n^{\alpha} \cdot |K(s,t)| \cdot |x(t)| dt$$

$$\leq M \cdot ||x|| \cdot \frac{2}{n^{1-\alpha}} \qquad ||T_{n} - T|| \leq \frac{2K}{n^{1-\alpha}}$$

- 3. Same as in 1 with  $B = L_2(S)$ , S = [a,b].
- 4. Same formula as in 1 but with K(s,t) in L, on square.

THEOREM 4: If T is completely continuous, the manifold M of x >



 $x - Tx = \mathbf{m}$  is a closed linear manifold of finite dimension. Also  $\mathbf{m} > 0$ 

$$\|x-Tx\| \ge md(x,M)$$
.

THEOREM 5: If T is completely continuous and  $x - Tx = \Theta$   $\iff$  x =  $\Theta$ , then I-T has a bounded inverse.

Consider I -  $\lambda T$ , i.e. x -  $\lambda Tx$  from now on.

DEFINITIONS: Eigenvalue. Spectrum. Complex B.

Lemma:  $\|T_1 \cdots T_n\| \le \|T_1\| \cdots \|T_n\|$  By induction.

THEOREM 6: If T is any operator  $I - \lambda T$  has an inverse for each  $\lambda$  with  $|\lambda| < \frac{1}{\|T\|}$ ,:

THEOREM 7: If  $\lambda_1$ , ...,  $\lambda_n$  are all distinct and non-zero and  $x_i = \lambda_i T x_i$ , i = 1, ..., n, then the  $x_1, ..., x_n$  are linearly independent.

THEOREM 8: If T is a completely continuous operator, its eigenvalues are isolated.

## 8. Hilbert space; unitary space.

DEFINITION: An N-dimensional unitary space (real or complex).

DEFINITION: Hilbert space (real or complex) % .

THEOREM 1: (a) 
$$(x, \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_i y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \overline{d}_i (x, y_i)$$

(b)  $|(x,y)| \le ||x|| \cdot ||y||$  (Schwarz)

DEFINITION: x orthogonal to y; x orthogonal to M.

DEFINITION: n.o. set. Complete n.o. set.

LEMM: If M is a linear manifold of finite dimensionality and x is not in M, if a  $y_0$  in M nearest x and  $y_0$  - x is orthogonal to M.



THEOREM 2: If  $\mathcal{H}$  is separable,  $\mathcal{H}$  contains a complete n.o. set.  $\frac{\text{THEOREM 3:}}{\text{THEOREM 3:}} \text{ If } \left\{ e_i \right\} \text{ is a complete n.o. set, and } \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{H} \text{, then the series } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |(x,e_n)|^2 < \infty \text{ and if we define } \mathbf{x}_N = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (x,e_n)e_n^* \text{, then } \mathbf{x}_N = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x^n e_n^* \text{, then } \mathbf{x}_N = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x^n e_n^* \text{, then } \mathbf{x}_N = \mathbf{$ 

THEOREM 4: If  $\{e_i\}$  is a complete n.o. set,  $x = \sum x^i e_i$ ,  $y = \sum y^i e_i$ , then  $(x,y) = \sum x^i y^i$ .

DEFINITION: Conjugate-linear functional.

LEMMA: f conjugate-linear ←→ f is linear.

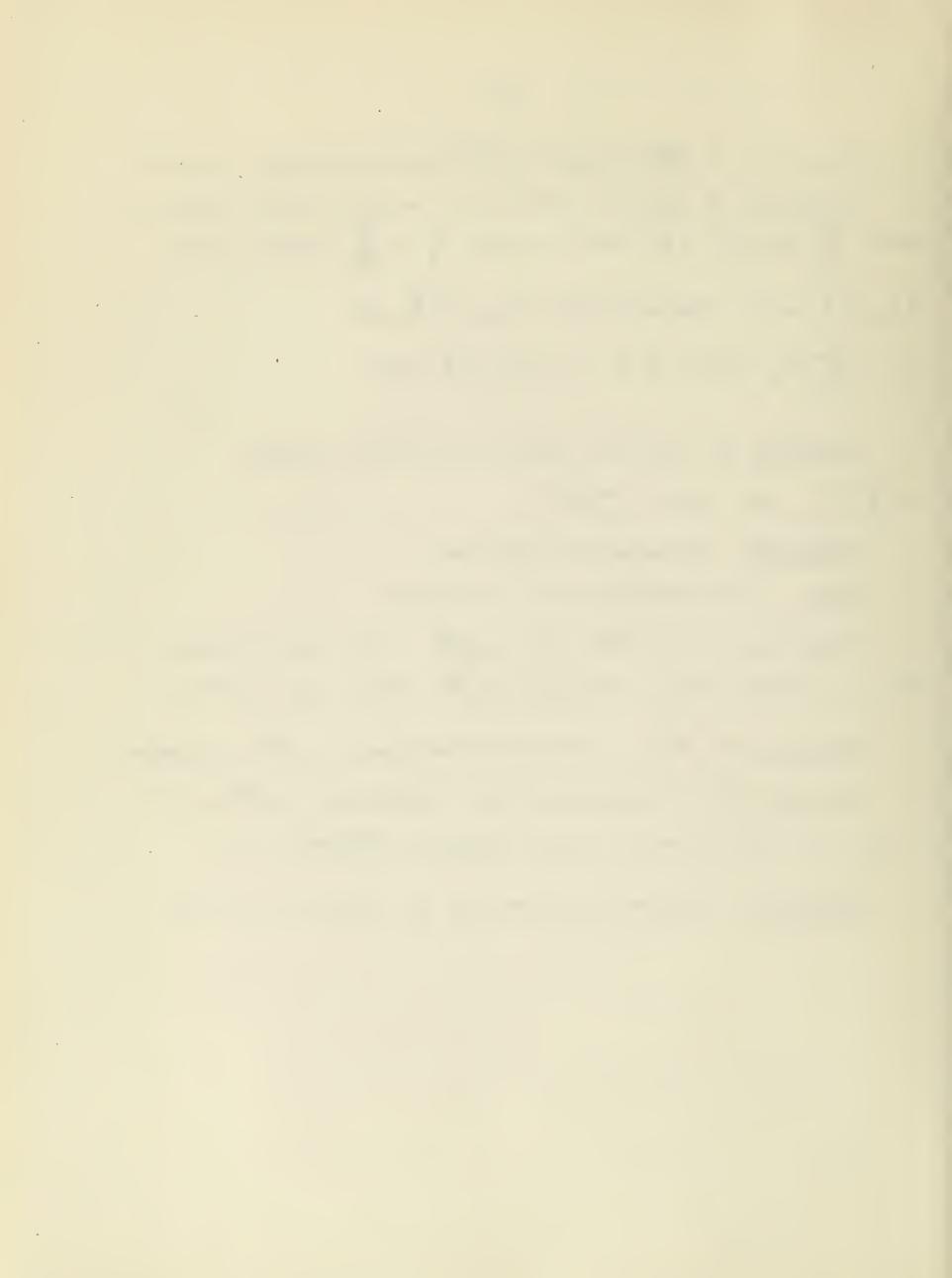
THEOREM 5: If  $f \in \mathcal{H}^* = f(x) = f(x) = f(x)$  for all x.

If f is conjugate linear, there is a  $y \in \mathcal{H} \to f(x) = (y,x)$  for all x.

THEOREM 6: If  $\mathcal{H}$  is a separable Hilbert space, then  $\mathcal{H}$  is reflexive.

THEO EM 7: If M is any closed linear manifold and  $x_0 \in \mathcal{R} - M$ ,  $\exists$  a  $y_0$  in M which is nearest  $x_0$  and  $(x_0-y_0)$  is orthogonal to M.

DEFINITION: Projection of an element on M; a projection operator.



#### CHAPTER I

#### SEMI-CLASSICAL RESULTS

1.1. Notations. In this course, we shall use the following notations and terminology: If G is a domain,  $\partial G$  denotes its boundary and  $\overline{G}$  denotes its closure; all domains will be bounded unless otherwise specified. If D is a domain with  $\overline{D}$  compact and  $\overline{D} \subset G$ , we write  $\overline{D} \subset G$ . If G is a domain and h > 0,  $G_h$  denotes the set of all points x in  $G \ni B(x,h) \subset G$ . If  $\varphi$  is a function,  $\lambda(\varphi)$  denotes its support, which is the closure of the set where  $\varphi$  does not vanish.

A function  $f \in C^m(G)$  iff (if and only if) f is continuous together with its partial derivatives of order  $\leq m$  on G;  $f \in C_{\mu}^{m}$  (G) for  $0 \leq \mu \leq 1$  iff  $f \in C^{m}(G)$  and its derivatives of order  $\leq m$  satisfy a uniform Hölder condition with exponent  $\mu$  (Lipschitz if  $\mu = 1$ ) on each compact subset of G;  $f \in C^{m}(\overline{G})$ iff  $f \in C^{m}(G)$  and f and its derivatives of order  $\leq m$  can be extended to  $\overline{G}$ and hence to a domain  $\supset \overline{G}$ ;  $f \in C_{\underline{u}}^{m}(\overline{G})$  iff f can be extended to  $\mathcal{E}C_{\underline{u}}^{m}(\Gamma)$  for some  $\Gamma \supset G$ . Similar definitions apply for  $f \in C^{\infty}(G)$ ,  $C^{\infty}(\overline{G})$ , or for fto be analytic on G or  $\overline{G}$ . A mapping  $x^{\alpha} = x^{\alpha}(y^{1},...,y^{\gamma})$ ,  $\alpha = 1,...,\gamma$ from a domain G onto G is of class C iff it is 1-1 and each of the functions  $\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}$  and  $\mathbf{y}^{\beta}$  of the inverse  $\mathbf{E} C^{m}(G)$  or  $C^{m}(\overline{G})$ ; the mapping is also <u>regular</u> iff all the derivatives of order < m are uniformly bounded; mappings of class con or analytic are defined similarly. The class  $C_c^m(G)$  (or  $C_{uc}^m(G)$  or  $C_c^m(G)$ , etc.) consists of all f & C (G) (or etc.) with compact support. A domain G is of class  $C^m$  ( $C_{\mu}^m$ ,  $C^{\infty}$ , analytic) iff it is bounded and each point P of  $\partial G$  is in a domain  $\eta$  which is the image under a 1-1 mapping  $\tau$  of class  $C^m$  ( $C_{\perp}^m$ ,  $C^\infty$ or analytic) of a sphere B(0,R) in which  $\sigma_R$  (see just below) is carried into  $\eta \cap \partial G$  and  $G_R$  is carried into  $\eta \cap G_*$ 



We say  $f \in L_p(G)$  iff f is measurable and  $|f|^p$  is summable on G; but we also use  $L_p(G)$  to denote the space of classes of equivalent functions with norm  $||f|_{p,G}^0 = \left\{ \int_G |\overline{f}(x)|^p dx \right\}^{Vp}$ 

for any representative  $\bar{f}$  of the element f. If  $f \in C_{\mu}(S)$ ,  $h_{\mu}(f)$  denotes its  $\mu$ -Hölder constant, i.e.

$$\sup_{\substack{x_1, x_2 \in \overline{G} \\ x_1 \neq x_2}} |x_2 - x_1|^{-\mu} |f(x_2) - f(x_1)| \qquad (x_k - (x_k^1, ..., x_k), k=1, 2)$$

If v is a vector or tensor (such as  $\mathbf{v}_{\gamma}^{\alpha\beta}$ ), |v| denotes its length, i.e. the square root of the sum of the square of its components. If S is a measurable set, |S| denotes its measure.  $B(\mathbf{x}_{0},R)$  denotes the open sphere with center at  $\mathbf{x}_{0}$  and radius R. E. denotes Euclidean V-space (metric included); E. is that part of E. where  $\mathbf{x}^{\gamma} > 0$ , E. that where  $\mathbf{x}^{\gamma} < 0$ ,  $\Sigma = \partial B(0,1)$ .

We have many occasions to work in the spheres B(0,R); we often abbreviate B(0,R) (and often  $B(\mathbf{x}_0,R)$  to  $B_R$ . We denote the hemisphere  $G_R = B_R \cap E_{\mathbf{v}}^+$ , the hemisphere  $G_R = B_R \cap E_{\mathbf{v}}^+$ . Also  $\sigma_R = \overline{G}_R \cap \overline{G}_R \cap B_R$ ,  $\Sigma_R = \partial B_R \cap E_{\mathbf{v}}^+$ ,  $\Sigma_R = \partial B_R \cap E_{\mathbf{v}}^+$ .

If  $u \in C^{1}(G)$ ,  $u_{,\alpha}$  denotes  $\partial u/\partial x_{j}^{\alpha}$  similar notations hold for higher derivatives. In boundary integrals,  $dx_{\alpha}^{1}$  stands for  $(n \cdot e_{\alpha})dS$  where n is the unit outer normal,  $e_{\alpha}$  is the unit vector in the  $x^{\alpha}$  direction, and dS is the  $(\mathcal{V}-1)$ -surface element; thus Green's theorem (D of class  $C^{1}$ ,  $u \in C^{1}(G)$ ) reads

 $\Gamma_{\nu} = |\partial B(0.1)|, \quad \Upsilon_{\nu} = |B(0,1)| \text{ in } \nu\text{-space.}$ 

If  $u \in C^{m}(G)$ ,  $a = (a_{1},...,a_{p})$  where each  $a_{p}$  is an integer  $\geq 0$ , |a| denotes



 $\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_{\sqrt{2}}$ , and  $D^\alpha u$  denotes  $\partial_{\alpha}^{|\alpha|} u \partial_{\alpha}^{|\alpha|} \dots \partial_{\alpha}^{|\alpha|} v$ ;  $\nabla^k u$  denotes all the derivatives  $D^\alpha u$  with  $|\alpha| = k$  and  $|\nabla^k u|^2 = \sum_{|\alpha| = k} |D^\alpha u|^2$ .

The cell  $a^{\alpha} \le x^{\alpha} \le b^{\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha = 1, \dots, \gamma$ , is denoted by [a,b]. There are times when we wish to study the behavior of a function as a function of some one variable  $x^{\alpha}$  or with respect to all variables except  $x^{\alpha}$ . When this is the case, we write  $x = (x^{\alpha}, x_{\alpha}^{i})$  and  $f(x) = f(x^{\alpha}, x_{\alpha}^{i})$  and denote  $(\gamma - 1)$  dimensional integrals over cells  $[a_{\alpha}^{i}, b_{\alpha}^{i}]$  on  $x^{\alpha} = \text{constant}$  by  $\int_{a_{\alpha}^{i}}^{\alpha} f(x^{\alpha}, x_{\alpha}^{i}) dx_{\alpha}^{i}$ , etc.

## 1.2. Elementary properties of harmonic functions.

DEFINITION 1.2.1: u is harmonic on  $G \longleftrightarrow u \in C^2(G)$  and  $\Delta u(x) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{9} u_{G\alpha}(x) = 0$ ,  $x \in G$ .

THEOREM 1.2.1: If u is harmonic on G, DCCG and D is of class C and  $\overline{B(x_0,R)}$  C G, then

(1.2.1) 
$$\int_{\partial D} u_{\alpha} dx_{\alpha}^{!} = 0$$

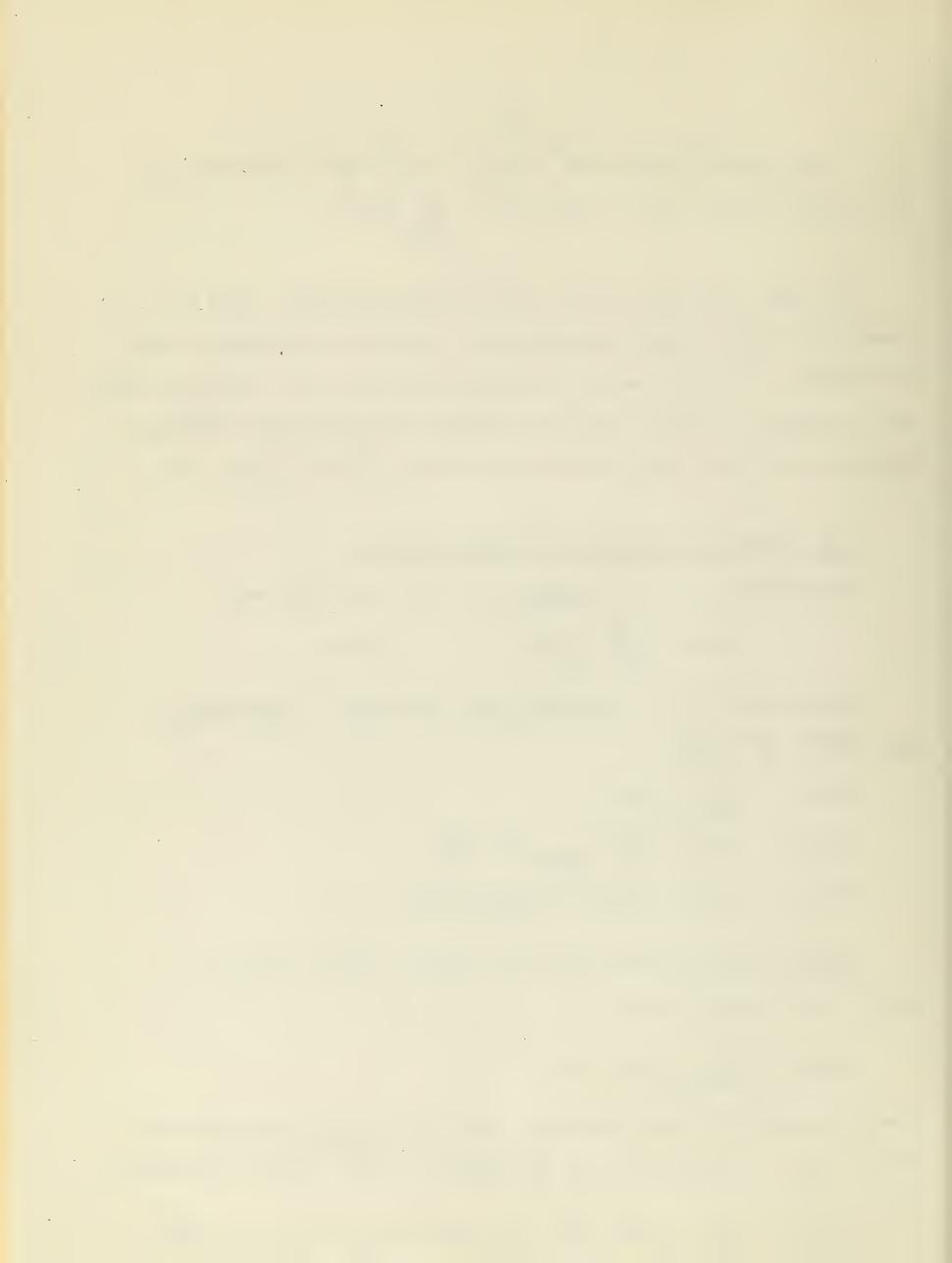
(1.2.2) 
$$u(x_0) = \int_0^{-1} \int_{aB(x_0,R)} u(x) dx$$

(1.2.3) 
$$u(x_0) = |B(x_0,R)^{-1} \int_{B(x_0,R)} u(x) dx$$

Proof: The first follows from Green's theorem. If  $D = B(x_0, r)$ ,  $0 \le R$ , (1.2.1) takes the form

(1.2.4) 
$$\int_{\partial B(x_0,r)} u_r dS = 0.$$

where  $u_r$  denotes the radial derivative. Let (r,p) be polar coordinates with pole at  $x_0$ ,  $r = |x-x_0|$  and p on  $\sum = \partial B(0,1)$ . Then (1.2.4) is equivalent to



Integrating (1.2.5) from 0 to R yields (1.2.2). Using (1.2.2) with R replaced by r, we obtain (1.2.3) by multiplying both sides of (1.2.2) by  $\Gamma_{\mathbf{r}}$  and integrating wrt. r from 0 to R.

THEOREM 1 .2.2: Suppose u is harmonic on the domain G,  $x_0 \in G$ , u takes on its maximum value at  $x_0$ . Then  $u(x) = u(x_0)$ .

Proof: Use the mean value theorem and connectedness of G.

THEOREM 1.2.3: If u is continuous and (1.2.3) holds for every B(x<sub>0</sub>,R) CCG, then u is harmonic. A harmonic function has derivatives of all orders which are harmonic.

Proof: Since (1.2.3) holds, we see that  $u \in C^1(G^0)$  with  $u_{,\alpha}(x) = |B(x_0,R)|^{-1} /_{\partial B(x_0,R)} u(x) dx_{\alpha}^{!}$  if  $B(x_0,R) \in CG$ ,  $\alpha = 1,..., \emptyset$  But then by Green's theorem, we see that  $u_{,\alpha}$  also satisfies (1.2.3). By induction, we see that all derivatives are continuous and satisfy (1.2.3).

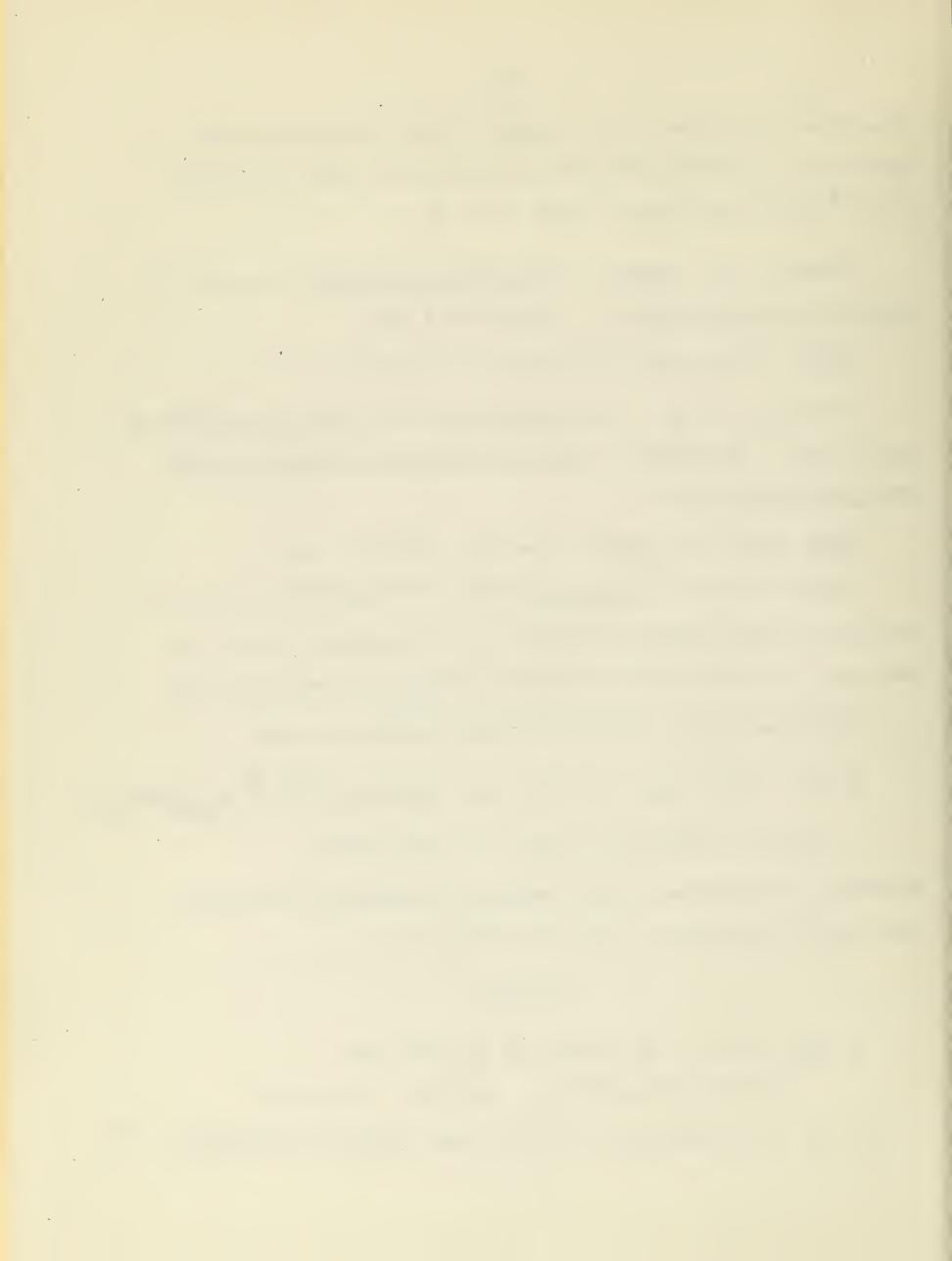
So, suppose x & G. Expanding in Taylor's series, we obtain

$$||\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)|| \leq ||\mathbf{M}^{\bullet}||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0||^3 \text{ if } ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0|| \leq |\mathbf{R}, \quad \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{R})| \leq \mathbf{G}.$$

It follows, by integrating (1.2.6) over  $B(x_0,r)$ , dividing by  $r^2 |B(x_0,r)|$ , using (1.2.3), and letting  $r \longrightarrow 0$ , that  $\Delta u(x_0) = 0$ .

## 3. EXERCISES

- 1. Show that if u is harmonic and in  $L_p(G)$ , then  $|u(x)|^p \le |B(x,r)|^{-1} \int_{B(x,r)} |u(y)|^p dy$  if  $B(x,r) \subset G$
- 2. If u is harmonic and  $u \in L_2(G)$ , then  $|\nabla_2 u(x)| \le C(\nu) ||u||_2^0 \delta_x^{-1-\nu/2}$



3. Show that if u is harmonic on G,  $|u(x)| \le M$  there,  $\delta_x$  denotes the distance of x from  $\partial G$  for  $x \in G$ , there exists a constant C, depending only on  $\delta$ , such that

$$| \nabla^{k} u(x) | \leq k! e^{k-1} C^{k} M \delta_{x}^{-k}$$
,  $k \geq 1$ 

1.3. Poisson's integral formula; elementary functions; Green's functions.

Suppose G is a bounded domain of class C' and u and v are of class

C'' on G = GU3G. Then, from Green's theorem, we obtain the formula

(1.3.1) 
$$\int_{G} (u\Delta v - v\Delta u) dx = \int_{\partial G} (u \frac{\partial v}{\partial v} - v \frac{\partial u}{\partial v}) dS$$
$$= \int_{\partial G} (uv_{\sigma} \alpha - vu_{\sigma} \alpha) dx'_{\sigma}$$

n being the exterior normal.

Next, it is a well-known and easily verified fact that

$$f(y) = \begin{cases} |y|^{2-1}, & \text{if } 1 > 2 \\ \log |y| & \text{if } 1 = 2 \end{cases}$$

is harmonic if  $y \neq 0$ . Moreover

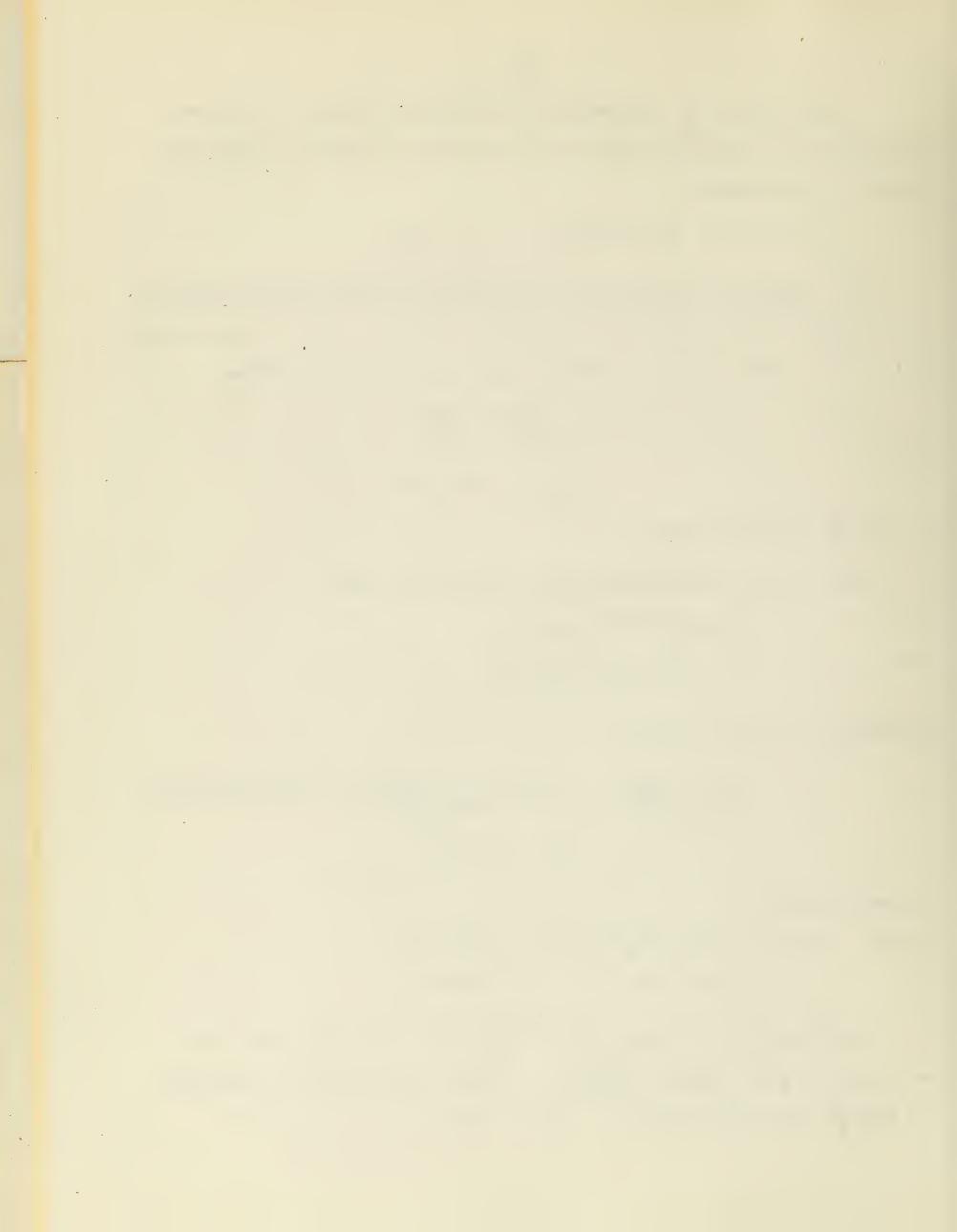
$$\int_{\partial B(0,\rho)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial n} dS = -(\sqrt{-2}) \int_{\partial B(0,\rho)} \frac{1-\sqrt{-2}}{\rho} dS = -(\sqrt{-2}) \Gamma_{\nu}, \text{ if } \nu > 2$$

$$2\pi, \text{ if } \nu = 2$$

So, let us define

(1.3.2) 
$$K_{o}(y) = \begin{cases} -(\sqrt{-2})^{-1} |y|^{2-1}, & \text{if } \sqrt{>2} \\ (2\pi)^{-1} \log |y|, & \text{if } \sqrt{=2} \end{cases}$$

Now, suppose G is bounded and of class C',  $u \in C^{11}(\overline{G})$ ,  $\Delta u(x) = f(x)$  on G, and  $x_0 \in G$ . Suppose  $\overline{B(x_0,\rho)} \subset G$  and we apply (1.3.1) to the domain  $G - \overline{B(x_0,\rho)}$  with  $v(x) = K_0(x-x_0)$ . Then we obtain



(1.3.3) 
$$\int_{\partial B(x_0, p)} (u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} - v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}) dS = \int_{G} (u \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} - v \frac{\partial u}{\partial n}) dS + \int_{G} v(x) f(x) dx$$

Letting  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$  in (1.3.3), we obtain

(1.3.4) 
$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}_{0}) = \int_{\mathbf{G}} (\mathbf{u} \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{n}} - \mathbf{v} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{n}}) d\mathbf{S} + \int_{\mathbf{G}} K_{0}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

$$(\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = K_{0}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{0}))$$

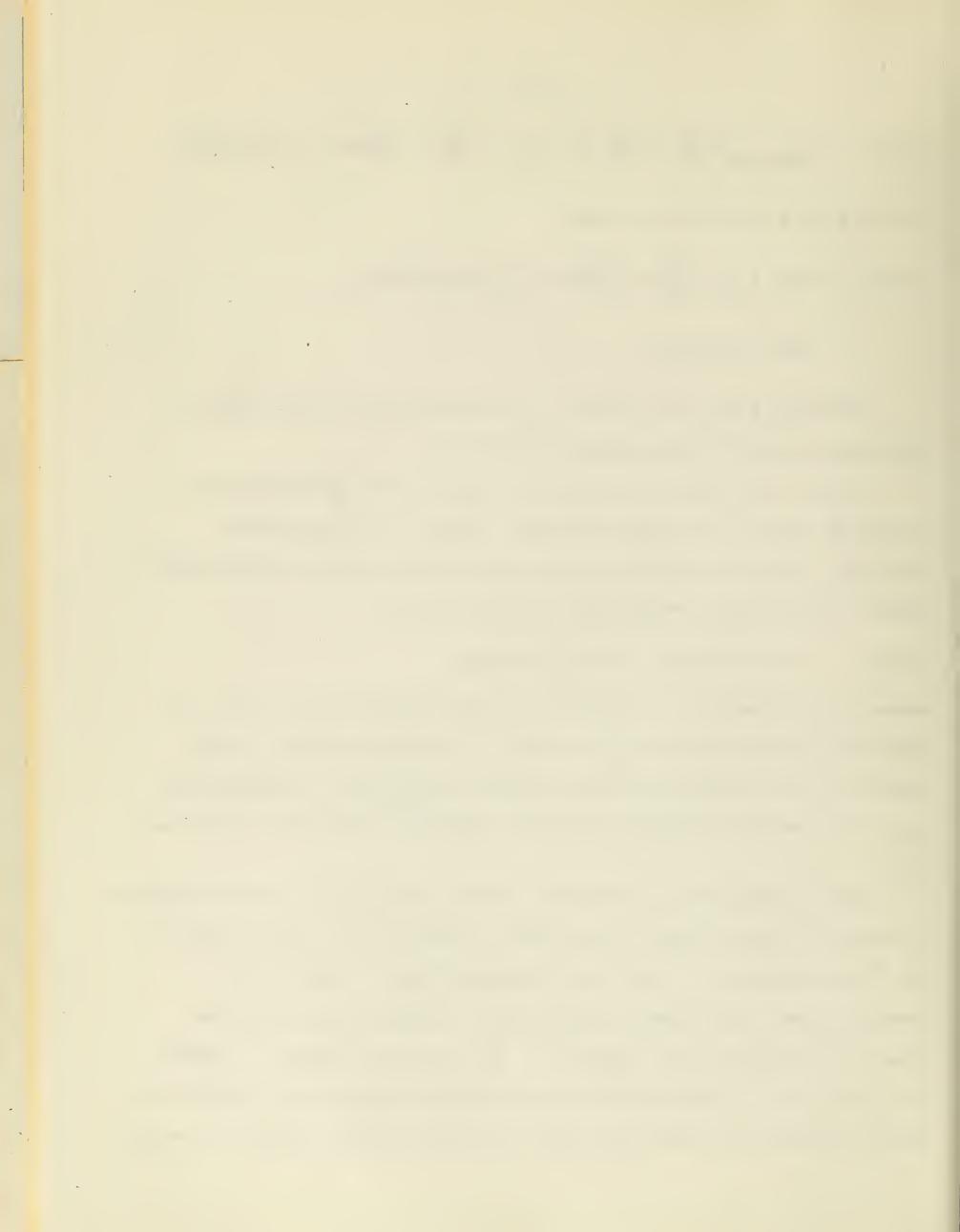
DEFINITION 1.3.1: The function  $K_0$ , defined in (1.3.2) is called the elementary function for Laplace's equation  $\Delta u = 0$ .

If f(x) = 0, then (1.3.4) expresses  $u(x_0)$  in terms of its boundary values and those of its normal derivative. However, from the maximum principle, a harmonic function is completely determined by its boundary values alone. If, in (1.3.4), we have f(x) = 0 and could take

(1.3.5) 
$$v(x) = K_0(x-x_0) + H(x,x_0) = G_0(x_0,x)$$

where H is harmonic in x for each  $x_0$  and so chosen that v = 0 on G, then (1.3.4) would express  $u(x_0)$  in terms of its boundary values. Such a function v, if it exists, is called a Green's function for G with pole at  $x_0$ . By the maximum principle, the Green's function is unique if it exists at all.

From the discussion so far given, it follows that (a) if a Green's function v exists for a given domain G and point  $x_0$  and (b) if u is of class C''' on  $\overline{G}$  and harmonic on G, then (1.3.4) expresses  $u(x_0)$  in terms of its boundary values. If a Green's function could be found and if it could be shown to be harmonic in  $x_0$  for each x in G, then the function u defined by (1.3.4) with f = 0 and u in the boundary integral replaced by a function u\* would be harmonic; it would then remain to show that  $u(x) \longrightarrow u*(x_0)$  as  $x \longrightarrow x_0$ 



for each  $x_0$  on  $\partial G$ . And, of course, proving the existence of the Green's function requires proving the existence of harmonic functions having certain given boundary values. This problem is called the Dirichlet problem.

Because of all the problems mentioned in the discussion above, the Cirichlet problem is not usually solved by proving the existence of the Green's function. However, there is one case where this is possible, namely the case when G is a sphere which, obviously, may be assumed to have center at the origin. We now derive the Green's function for such a sphere.

Let  $x \in B_R = B(0,R)$  and let x! be the point inverse to x with respect to  $B_R$ , that is, the point where

$$x_{\alpha}^{\dagger} = R^2 x^{\alpha} / |x|^2$$

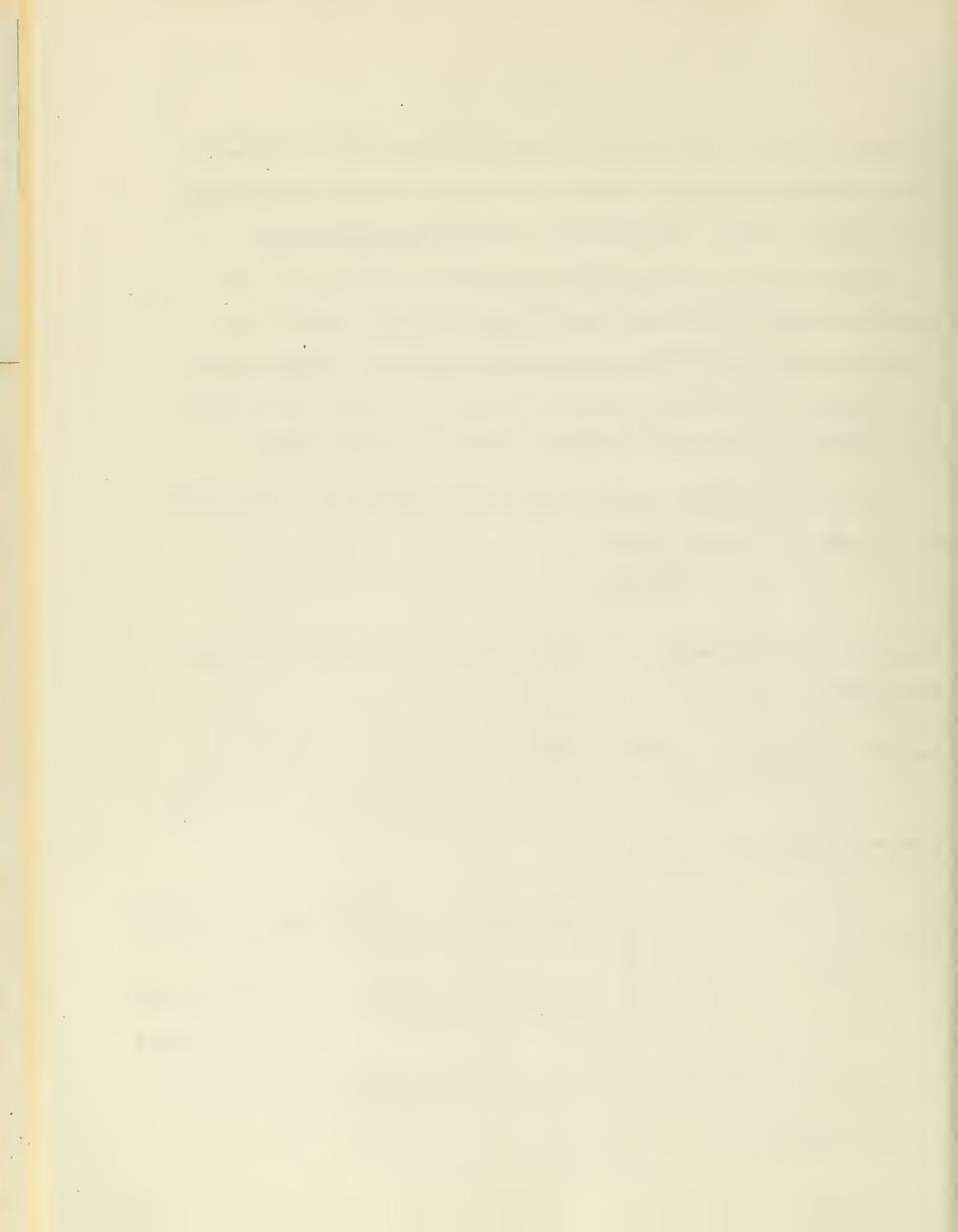
Using the spherical symmetry, it is easy to verify that the ratio  $|\xi-x|/|\xi-x^*|$  is the same for all  $\xi$  on  $\partial B_p$  so that

(1.3.6) 
$$\frac{|\xi - x|}{|\xi - x'|} = \frac{R - |x|}{R^2 - R} = \frac{|x|}{R}$$

Thus we note that if we define

(1.3.7) 
$$G(x,\xi) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ \log |\xi - x| - \log |\xi - x'| - \log(|x|/R) \right], \ \nu = 2 \\ -(\nu^2 - 2)^{-1} \left[ |\xi - x|^{2-\nu} - |\xi - x'|^{2-\nu}(|x|/R)^{2-\nu} \right] \\ \nu > 2 \end{cases}$$

then  $G(x,\xi)$  is of the form (1.3.5). Moreover, by using the formulas for  $x^*$  and  $\xi^*$ , we see that



$$(1.3.8)$$
  $G(\xi, x) = G(x,\xi)$ 

so that G is harmonic in x for each  $\xi$  and vanishes for  $\xi$  interior to  $B_R$  and  $x \in \partial B_R$ . Thus the function u defined by (1.3.4) with f = 0 and  $v(\xi) = G(x,\xi)$  is harmonic on  $B_R$ . Finally, since the function u = 1 and G satisfy the hypotheses of the argument in the paragraph containing equations (1.3.3) and (1.3.4), we conclude that

(1.3.9) 
$$\int_{\partial B_R} \frac{\partial G(x,\xi)}{\partial n(\xi)} dS(\xi) = 1, \quad x \in B_R$$

By computation from (1.3.7), we see that

$$\frac{\partial G(x,\xi)}{\partial n(\xi)} = R^{-1} \xi^{\alpha} G_{\xi\alpha} = R^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} \xi^{\alpha} [|\xi-x|^{-1}(\xi^{\alpha}-x^{\alpha}) - (|x|/R)^{2-1}|\xi-x^{\alpha}|^{-1})$$

$$= R^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} [|\xi-x|^{-1}(R^{2}-\xi \cdot x) - (|x|/R)^{-1}|\xi-x^{\alpha}|^{-1}(|x|^{2}-\xi \cdot x)]$$

For  $\xi$  on  $\partial B_R$ , we may use (1.3.6) to obtain

(1.3.10) 
$$\frac{\partial G(x,\xi)}{\partial n(\xi)} - (\int_{\mathbb{R}}^{\mathbb{R}^{-1}}) |\xi - x|^{-\nu} (\mathbb{R}^2 - |x|^2)$$

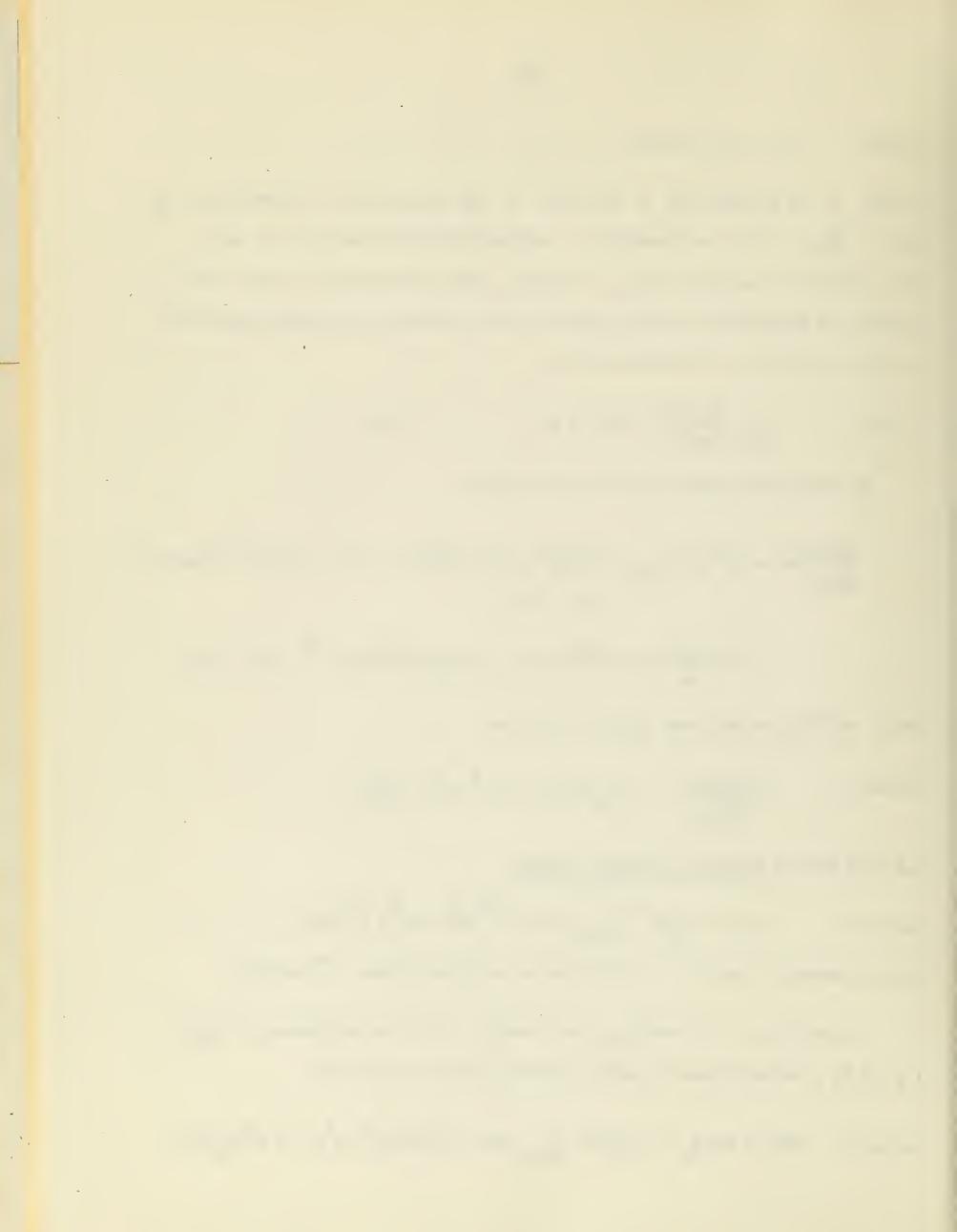
and thus obtain Poisson's integral formula

(1.3.11) 
$$u(x) = (|\nabla R|^{-1}) \int_{\partial B_R} |\xi - x|^{-1} (|R^2 - |x|^2) u^*(\xi) d\xi$$

for the harmonic function u which takes on given values u on  $\partial B_{R}$ 

To see that  $u(x) \longrightarrow u^*(\xi_0)$  as  $x \longrightarrow \xi_0$  if  $u^*$  is continuous,  $x \in B_R$ ,  $\xi_0 \in \partial B_R$ , we note from (1.3.9), (1.3.10), and (1.3.11) that

(1.3.12) 
$$u(x) - u^*(\xi_0) = ( [R]^{-1} \int_{\partial B_R} |\xi_{-x}|^{-\nu} (R^2 - |x|^2) [u^*(\xi) - u^*(\xi_0)] d\xi$$



To show that this difference  $\longrightarrow$  0, we break the integral on the right in (1.3.12) into integrals  $I_1$  over  $\partial B_R \cap B(\xi_0, \rho)$  and  $I_2$  over  $\partial B_R - B(\xi_0, \rho)$  where we may choose  $\rho$  so that  $|u^*(\xi) - u^*(\xi_0)| < \varepsilon/2$  for  $\xi \in \partial B_R \cap B(\xi_0, \rho)$ ,  $\varepsilon$  being given. The reader may complete the proof.

## EXERCISE

Complete the proof that  $u(x) - u^*(\xi_0) \longrightarrow 0$  in (1.3.12).

1.4 Potentials. In formula (1.3.4) with  $v(x) = K_0(x-x_0) = K_0(x_0-x)$ , we see that if u is of class C'' on G with

$$(1.4.1) \qquad \Delta u(x) = f(x)$$

where G is of class C', then the boundary integrals are harmonic so that the function U defined by

(1.4.2) 
$$U(x) = \int_{G} K_{0}(x-\xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$

would differ from u by a harmonic function and hence would also be a solution of (1.4.1).

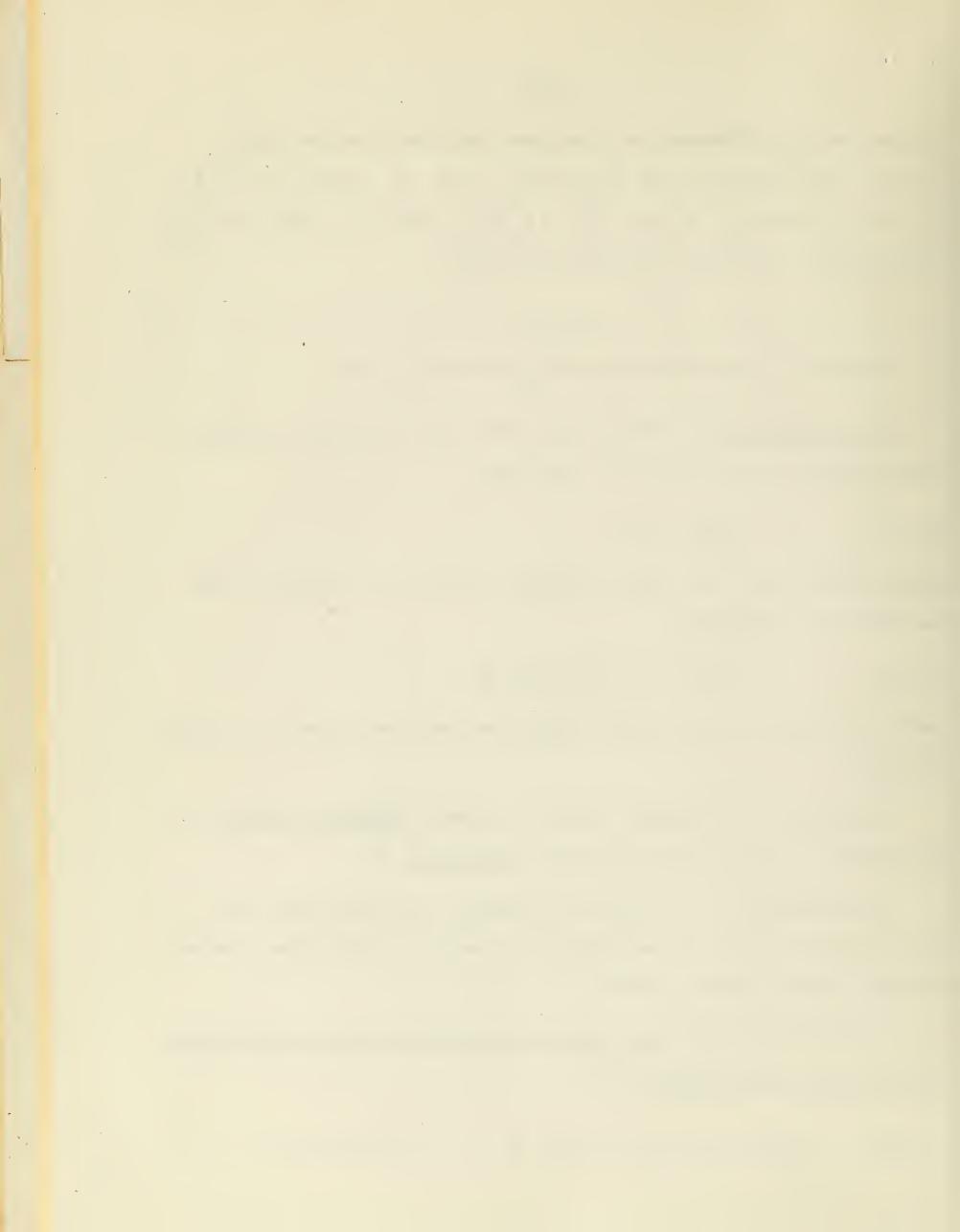
DEFINITIONS: The equation (1.4.1) is known as Poisson's equation and the function U in (1.4.2) is called the potential of f.

Unfortunately, if f is merely continuous, it does not follow that U is necessarily of class C'!; we shall give an example of this later. However, we begin with the following theorem:

THEOREM 1.4.1: If f is bounded and measurable and has compact support

C G(bounded), its potential U < C'

(1.4.3) 
$$U_{\alpha}(x) = \int_{G} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)f(\xi) d\xi$$
,  $M = \sup f(\xi)$ ,



$$(1.4.4)$$
  $|U_{\alpha}(x_2) - U_{\alpha}(x_1)| \le M(3\rho + \rho \log(3 + \Delta/\rho)), \Delta = \text{diam } G, \rho = |x_2 - x_1|$ 

<u>Proof:</u> We shall first assume that f is continuous everywhere and define  $V_{\alpha}(x)$  to equal the right side of (1.4.3) and define

(1.4.5) 
$$V_{\alpha}(x) = \int_{G-B(x,\rho)} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$
,  $x \in E_{\gamma}$ .

We note first that the integrals are absolutely convergent and

(1.4.6) 
$$|V_{\alpha\rho}(x) - V_{\alpha}(x)| \leq M \int_{B(x,\rho)} \int_{v}^{-1} |\xi - x|^{1-\sqrt{y}} d\xi = M\rho, M = \sup f(\xi).$$

for all x. Also, if we choose  $G' \supset G \cup \overline{B(x,\rho)}$  (remembering that  $f(\xi) = 0$  on  $E_{\nu} - G$ )

(1.4.7) 
$$\nabla_{\alpha \boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{(x)}} = -\int_{\partial B(x, \boldsymbol{\rho})} K_{0,\alpha}(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi + \int_{G^{1}-B(x, \boldsymbol{\rho})} K_{0,\alpha}(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$

$$x \in E_{0}.$$

By calculating  $K_{0,\alpha\beta}$ , we see that

$$|K_{\alpha\beta}(y)| \leq r^{-1} [|y|^{-1} + |y|^{-1} - 2|y^{\alpha}| \cdot |y^{\beta}|], |K_{\alpha}(y)| = r^{-1} |y|^{-1} |y^{\alpha}|.$$

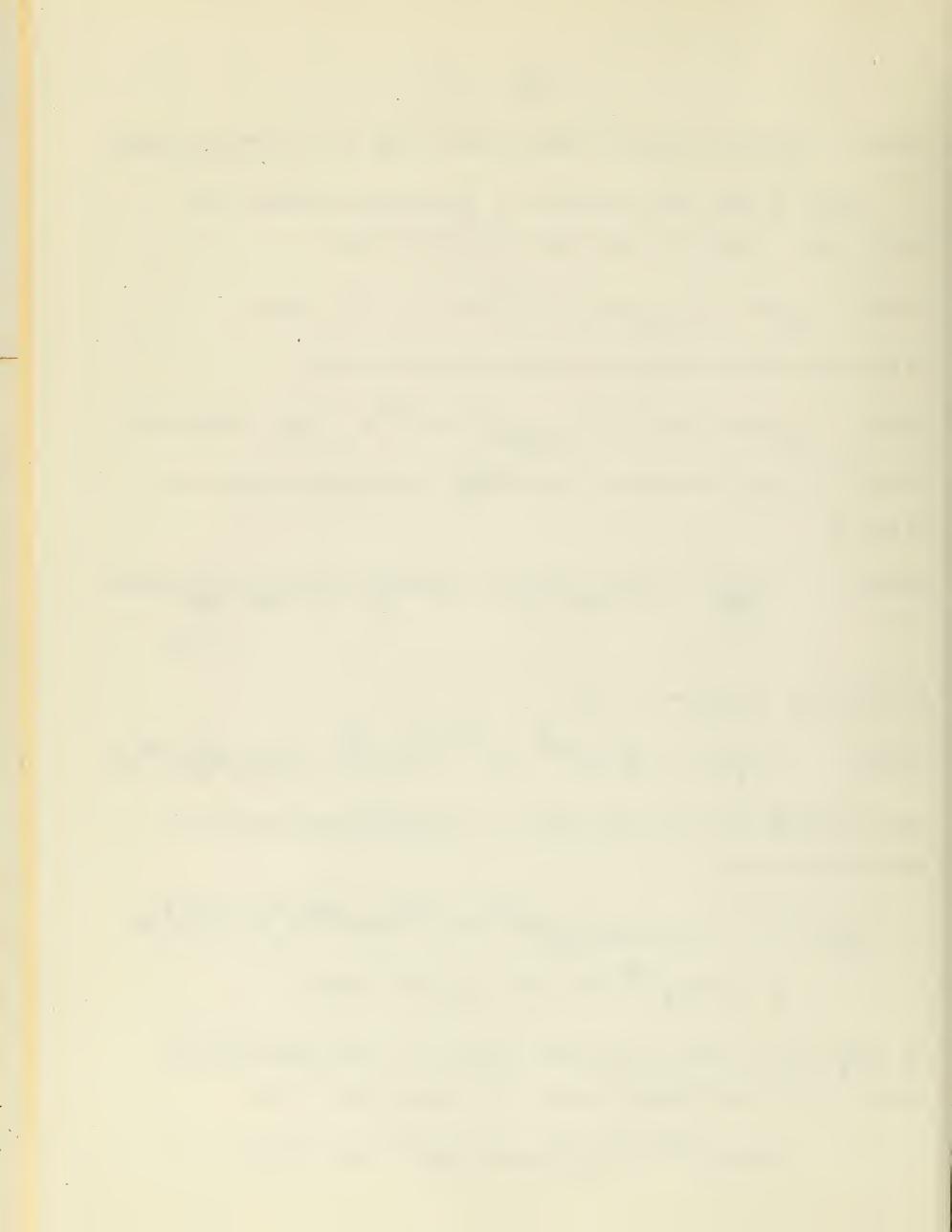
Thus, if  $\overline{B(x,\rho)} \cap G \neq 0$ , we may choose  $G^1 = G \cup B(x,2\rho)$  and use (1.4.7) and (1.4.8) to obtain

$$|V_{\alpha\rho,\beta}(x)| \leq M + \int_{B(x,\Delta+3\rho)-B(x,\rho)} M \Gamma_{\nu}^{-1} [|\xi-x|^{-\frac{1}{\nu}}]|\xi-x|^{-\frac{1}{\nu}-2} |\xi^{\alpha}-x^{\alpha}| \cdot |\xi^{\beta}-x^{\beta}| ]d\xi$$

$$\leq M [1+C_{\nu} \int_{\rho}^{\Delta+3\rho} r^{-1} dr] = M[1+C_{\nu} \log(3+\Delta/\rho)].$$

If  $B(x,\rho) \cap G = 0$ , then the first term in (1.4.7) is 0 and, since  $f(\xi) = 0$  outside G, the second integral reduces to an integral over G and

$$\leq M C_{\bullet} \int_{\delta}^{\Delta+\delta} r^{-1} dr \leq [1+C_{\bullet} \log(3+\Delta/\rho)] \text{ since } \delta \geq \rho$$
.



Thus (1.4.4) follows with  $U_{,\alpha}$  replaced by  $V_{\alpha}$ . Since this inequality does not depend on the modulus of continuity of f, we may approximate any admitted f by continuous functions and (1.4.4) follows in the limit for  $V_{\alpha}$ . That  $V_{\alpha}(x) = U_{,\alpha}(x)$  then follows by integration, using Fubini's theorem.

1.5 General potential theory. In the preceding section, we saw that if f is bounded and measurable, its potential is of class C' and its derivatives are given by formulas of the type

(1.5.1) 
$$V(x) = \int_G \int (x-\xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$

where \( \gamma \) satisfies the following general hypotheses:

GENERAL HYPOTHESES ON 🎵 :

- (a) is positively homogeneous of degree 1- →;
- (b)  $\Gamma(-y) = -\Gamma(y)$  for  $y \neq 0$ .
- (c) is of class C'' on  $E_{\gamma} \{0\}$ .

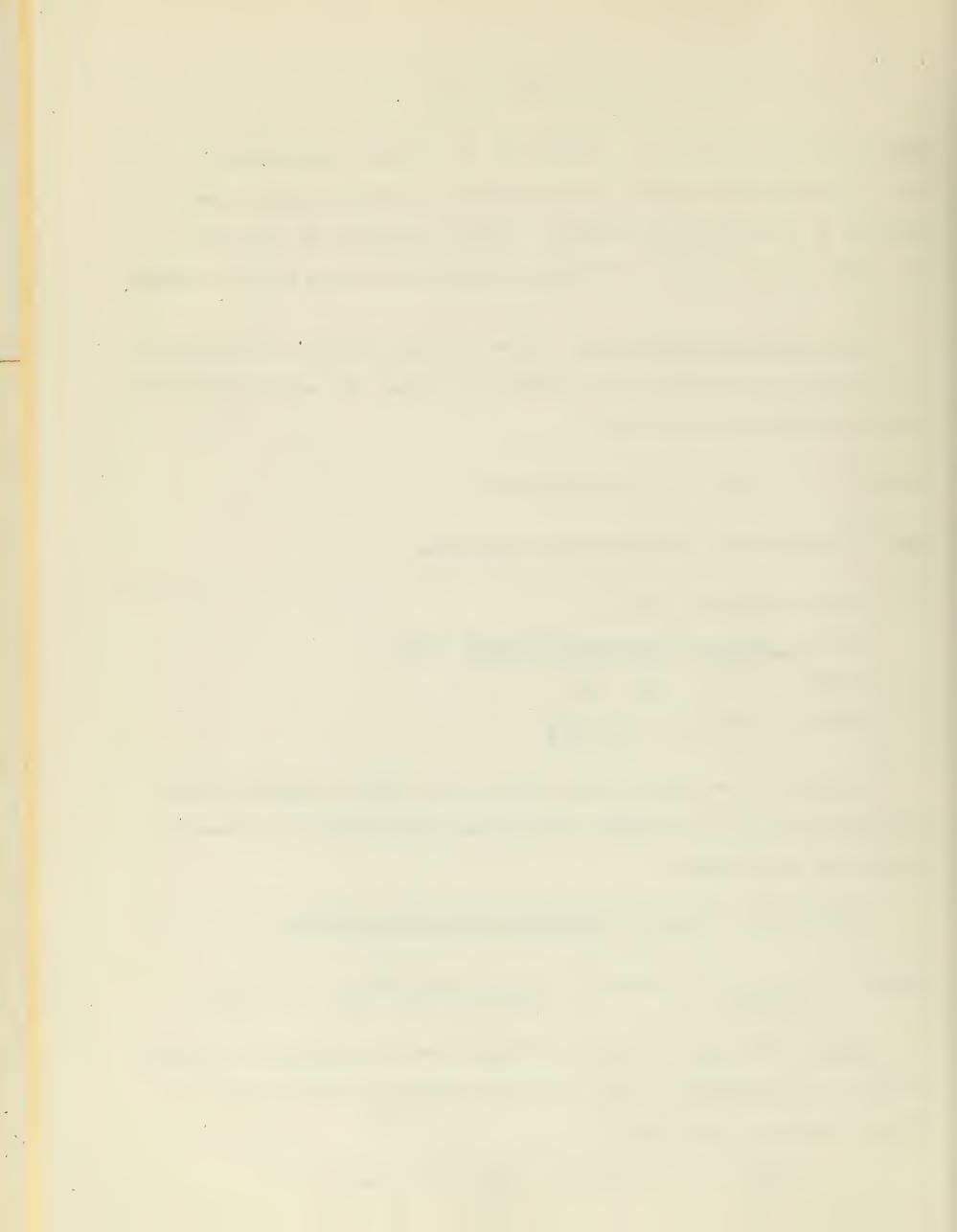
Integrals of the type in (1.5.1) arise in the study of elliptic systems of higher order also, so we devote this section to the study of such integrals and to other useful lemmas.

THEOREM 1.5.1: For any [ satisfying the general hypotheses,

(1.5.2) 
$$\int_{\partial B(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbb{R})} \Gamma(\xi - \mathbf{x}) d\xi'_{\gamma} = \int_{\partial B(0, 1)} \Gamma(\mathbf{y}) \mathbf{y}^{\gamma} dS(\eta) , \mathbf{x} \in B(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{r})$$

Proof: If  $x = x_0$ , the result is obvious from the homogeneity. Otherwise we set up a correspondence  $\xi = \xi(\eta)$  between the points  $\eta$  of  $\partial B(0,1)$  and  $\xi$  on  $\partial B(x_0,R)$  by means of the equation

$$\xi(\eta) = x + \lambda(\eta) \cdot \eta$$
,  $\lambda(\eta) = |\xi(\eta) - x| > 0$ 



Trien

(1.5.3) 
$$d \xi_{\gamma}^{1} = R^{-1}(\xi^{\gamma} - x_{0}^{\gamma}) \cdot dS(\xi) = R^{-1}(\xi^{\gamma} - x_{0}^{\gamma}) \cdot \lambda^{\gamma} - 1 \operatorname{sec} X(\gamma) dS(\eta),$$

(1.5.4) 
$$\cos X(\eta) = R^{-1} \eta \cdot (\xi - x_0)$$

For a given  $\eta$ , let  $x_1(\eta)$  be the foot of the perpendicular from  $x_0$  to the line joining x with  $\xi(\eta)$ . Then we see that  $\xi(\eta)$  is the other intersection of this line with  $\partial B(x_0,R)$  and that

(1.5.5) 
$$x_1(-\eta) = x_1(\eta), \quad x(-\eta) = x(\eta),$$

(1.5.6) 
$$\xi(\eta) = x_1(\eta) + R \cos X(\eta) \cdot \eta$$
.

From the homogeneity and (1,5.6) we have

$$\lambda^{\gamma-1} \Gamma(\xi - x) = \Gamma(\eta)$$

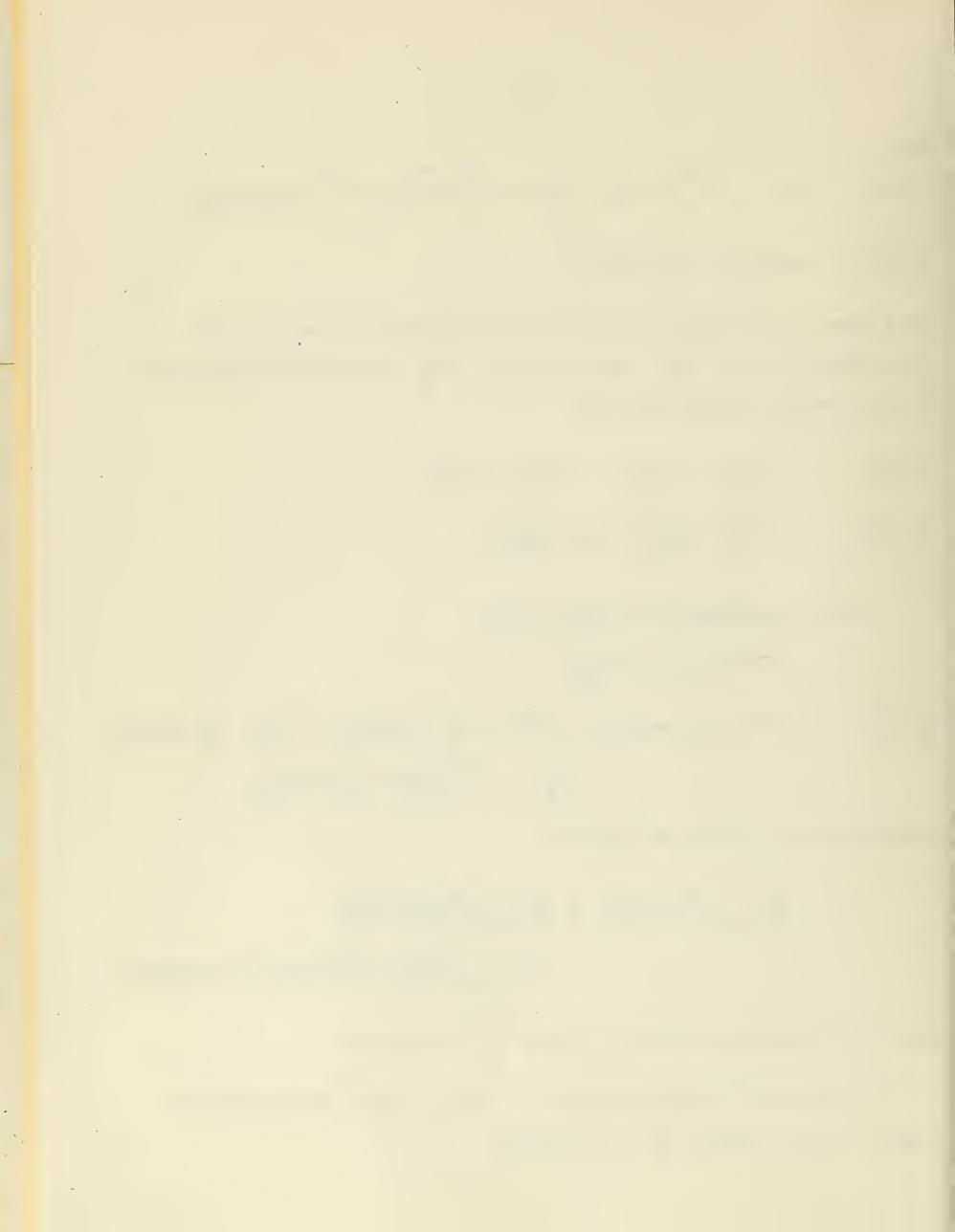
$$(1.5.7) \qquad \mathbb{R}^{-1}(\xi^{\gamma} - x_0^{\gamma}) \operatorname{sec} X(\eta) = \mathbb{R}^{-1}(\xi^{\gamma} - x_1^{\gamma}) \operatorname{sec} X(\eta) + \mathbb{R}^{-1}(x_1^{\gamma} - x_0^{\gamma}) \operatorname{sec} X(\eta)$$

$$= \eta^{\gamma} + \mathbb{R}^{-1}[x_1^{\gamma}(\eta) - x_0^{\gamma}] \operatorname{sec} X(\eta)$$

Using (1.5.7) and (1.5.3), we see that

and the last integral vanishes by virtue of (b) and (1.5.5).

THEOREM 1.5.2: (a) Any two points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $B_R$  can be joined by a path x = x(s),  $0 \le \le 1$ , in  $B_R$  such that



$$\int_0^{R} (R - |x(s)|)^{\mu-1} ds \le (2\mu^{-1} + 1) \cdot |x_1 - x_2|^{\mu}$$
,  $0 < \mu \le 1$ .

(b) There is a constant  $C(\mu)$  such that any two points of  $G_R$  can be joined by a path x = x(s),  $0 < s < \ell$ , in  $G_R$  such that

$$\int_0^{R} \{\delta[x(s)]\}^{\mu-1} ds \le C(\mu) \cdot |x_1-x_2|^{\mu}, \quad 0 < \mu \le 1,$$

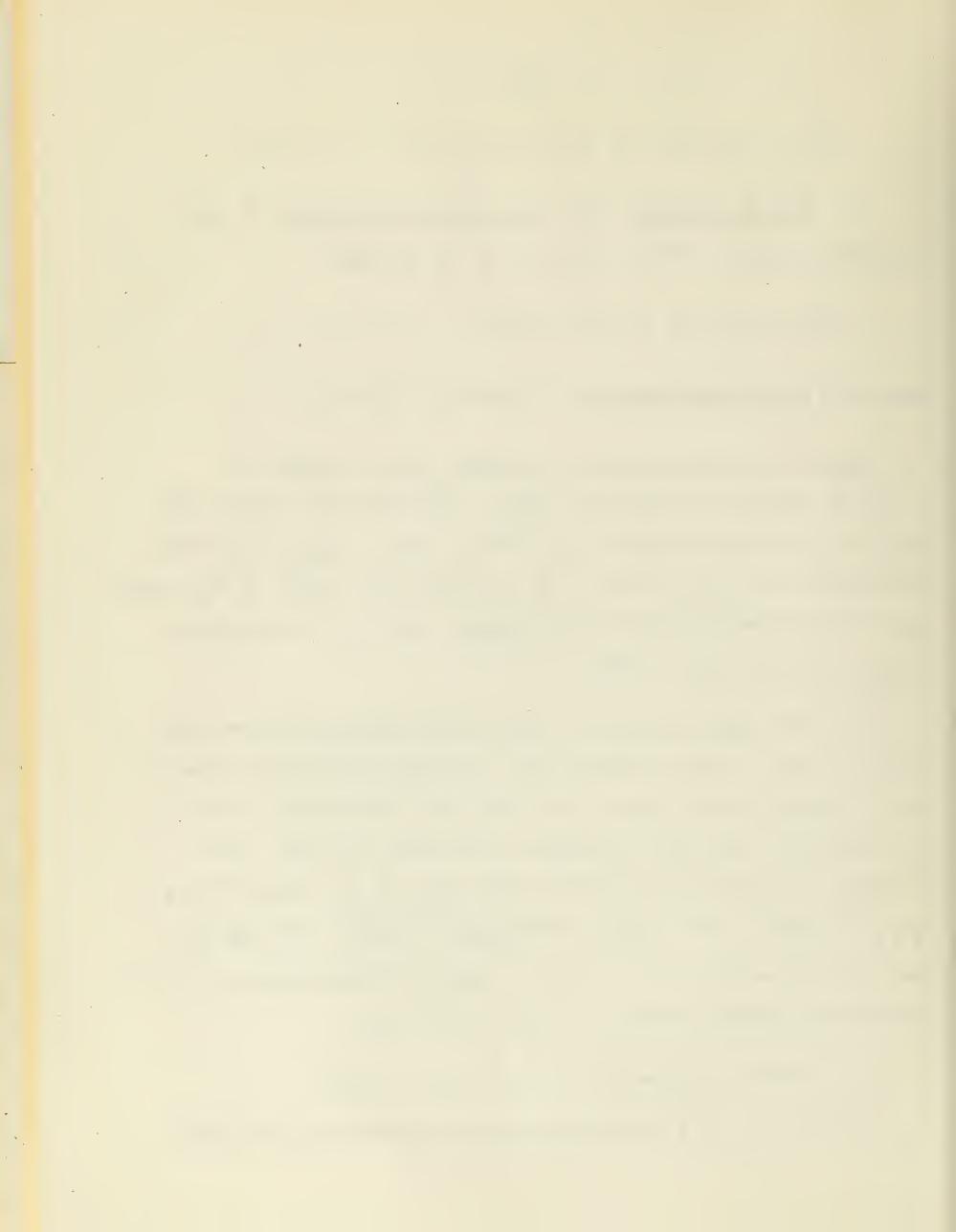
where  $\delta(x)$  denotes the distance of x from  $\partial G_R = \sum_R U \sigma_R$ .

Proof: (a) is easily verified as follows: Let  $\rho = |x_1-x_2|$ . If  $R \le \rho < 2R$ , choose the polygonal path  $x_1 O x_2$ . If  $0 < \rho < R$  and  $|x_1| \le R - \rho$ , choose the segment  $x_1 x_2$ . If  $|x_1| > R - \rho$ ,  $|x_2| \le R - \rho$ , choose the polygonal path  $x_1 x_3 x_2$  where  $x_3$  is on  $O x_1$  with  $|x_3| = R - \rho$ . If  $|x_1| > R - \rho$ ,  $|x_2| > R - \rho$ , choose the polygonal path  $x_1 x_3 x_1 x_2$  where  $x_3$  is on  $O x_1 x_1$  is on  $O x_2$ , and  $|x_3| = |x_1| = R - \rho$ .

(b) Since  $x_1,0$ , and  $x_2$  lie in a plane, it is sufficient to prove this for  $0 < |x_1-x_2| = \rho = kR$  where 0 < k < 1/3, say. For such  $\rho$ , the set S of x such that  $\delta(x) \ge \rho$  is the part of the circle  $|x| \le R-\rho$  where  $x^2(-y) \ge \rho$ . For such  $\rho$ , we choose the paths  $x_1x_2$  if  $x_1$  and  $x_2 \in S\rho$ ,  $x_1x_3x_2$  if  $x_1 \notin S\rho$  and  $x_2 \notin S\rho$ , and  $x_1x_3x_4x_2$  if  $x_1 \notin S\rho$  and  $x_2 \notin S\rho$ ; here  $x_3$  is the nearest point of  $S\rho$  to  $x_1$  and  $x_4$  is that nearest  $x_2$ . A straightforward analysis verifies the result in all cases.

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 1.5.1, we obtain

THEOREM 1.5.3: If | satisfies our general hypotheses and is of class



on E =  $\{0\}$ ,  $n \ge 1$ , there exist constants  $c_{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n}^{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n}$  which depend on  $\{0\}$  but whose magnitudes depend only on those of  $\{0\}$  on  $\{0\}$  for  $\{0\}$ ,

such that

$$= \int_{\partial B(x_0, R)} \prod_{\alpha_1, \alpha_n} (x_{-\xi}) (\xi^1 - x^{-1}) \cdots (\xi^n - x^{-n}) d\xi_{\gamma}^1 = C_{\alpha_1, \alpha_n}^1 \cdot x_{E}B(x_0, R)$$

$$= \int_{\partial B(x_0, R)} \prod_{\alpha_1, \alpha_n} (x_{-\xi}) (\xi^1 - x^{-1}) \cdots (\xi^n - x^{-n}) d\xi_{\gamma}^1 = 0, p < n, x_{E}B(x_0, R)$$

$$\int_{B(x_0, R) - B(x_1, \rho)} \prod_{\alpha_1, \alpha_n} (x_{-\xi}) (\xi^1 - x^{-1}) \cdots (\xi^n - x^{-n}) d\xi_{\gamma}^1 = 0, p < n, x_{E}B(x_0, R)$$

$$x \in B(x_1, \rho) \in C(B(x_0, R))$$

THEOREM 1.5.4: Suppose [satisfies the general hypotheses and  $f \in C_{\mu}^{\circ}$  on  $\overline{B}_R$  with  $0 < \mu < 1$ , and suppose U is defined by (1.5.1). Then  $U \in C^{1+\mu}$  on  $\overline{B}_R$  and

(1.5.8) 
$$U_{,\alpha}(x) = C_{\alpha}f(x) + \int_{B_{R}} \int_{,\alpha} (x-\xi)[f(\xi) - f(x)]d\xi = \lim_{\rho \to \infty} \int_{B_{R}} \int_{-B} (x,\rho) d\xi$$

$$\int_{,\alpha} (x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$

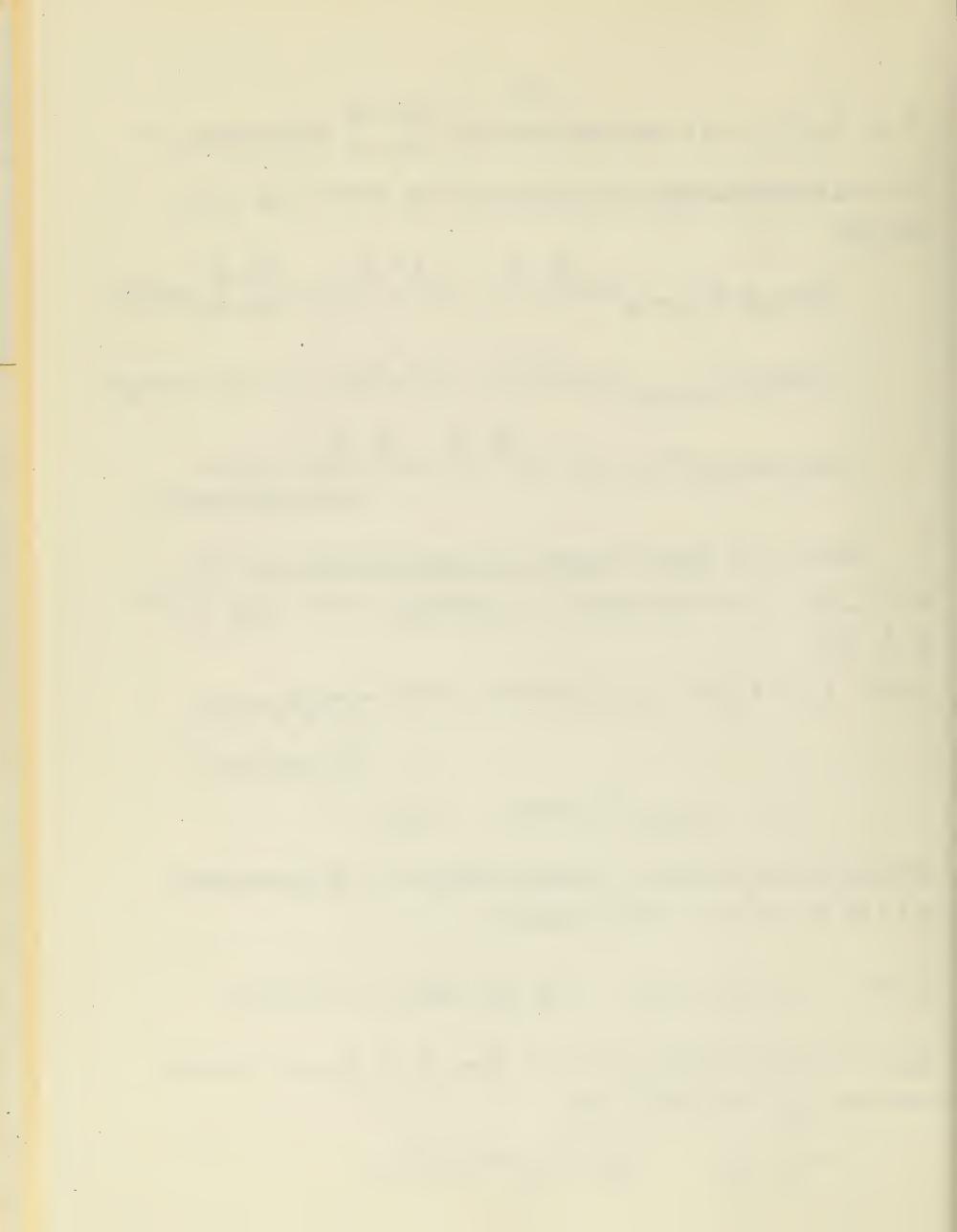
$$C_{\alpha} = +\int_{B(0,1)} \int_{-B(0,1)} (y)y^{\alpha}dS(y), \quad x \in B_{R}$$

Moreover, there is a constant C, depending only on  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$ , and the magnitudes of  $\Gamma$ ,  $\nabla\Gamma$  and  $\nabla^2\Gamma$  on B(0,1), such that

(1.5.9) 
$$h_{\mu}(\nabla U) \leq Ch_{\mu}(f)$$
,  $\|\nabla U\|^{2} \leq C[\|f\||^{0} + \mu^{-1}R^{\mu}h_{\mu}(f)]$ 

<u>Proof:</u> We begin by extending f to be of class  $C_{\mu}^{o}$  on  $\overline{B}_{2R}$  and to have the same bounds  $h_{\mu}(f)$  and  $|||f|||^{o}$ . Then

$$U = U_1 - U_2$$
,  $U_1(x) = \int_{B_{2R}} \int (x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$ ,



(1.5.10) 
$$U_2(x) = \int_{B_{2R}-B_R} (x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$
,

Using Theorem 1.5.3 and the fact that  $\Gamma_{,\alpha}(x-\xi)=-\partial\Gamma(x-\xi)/\partial\xi^{\alpha}$ , we obtain, for x c B<sub>R</sub>,

(1.5.11) 
$$U_{2,\alpha}(x) = \int_{B_{2R}-B_{R}} \prod_{\alpha} (x-\xi) f(\xi) d\xi = \int_{B_{2R}-B_{R}} \prod_{\alpha} (x-\xi) [f(\xi)-f(x)] d\xi$$

(1.5.12) 
$$U_{2,\alpha\beta}(x) = \int_{B_{2R}-B_{R}} \Gamma_{,\alpha\beta}(x-\xi)[f(\xi)-f(x)]d\xi$$

From (1.5.12), we obtain

$$|\nabla^2 U_2(x)| \leq c_1 \cdot h_{\mu}(f) \cdot (R-|x|)^{\mu-1}$$

Using Theorem 1.5.2 and the fact that

$$|\nabla U_2(x_2) - \nabla U_2(x_1)| \le \int_0^L |\nabla^2 U[x(s)] ds|$$

along any path x = x(s),  $0 \le s \le \ell$ , we see that

(1.5.14) 
$$h_{\mu}(\nabla U_2) \leq C_2 \cdot h_{\mu}(f)$$

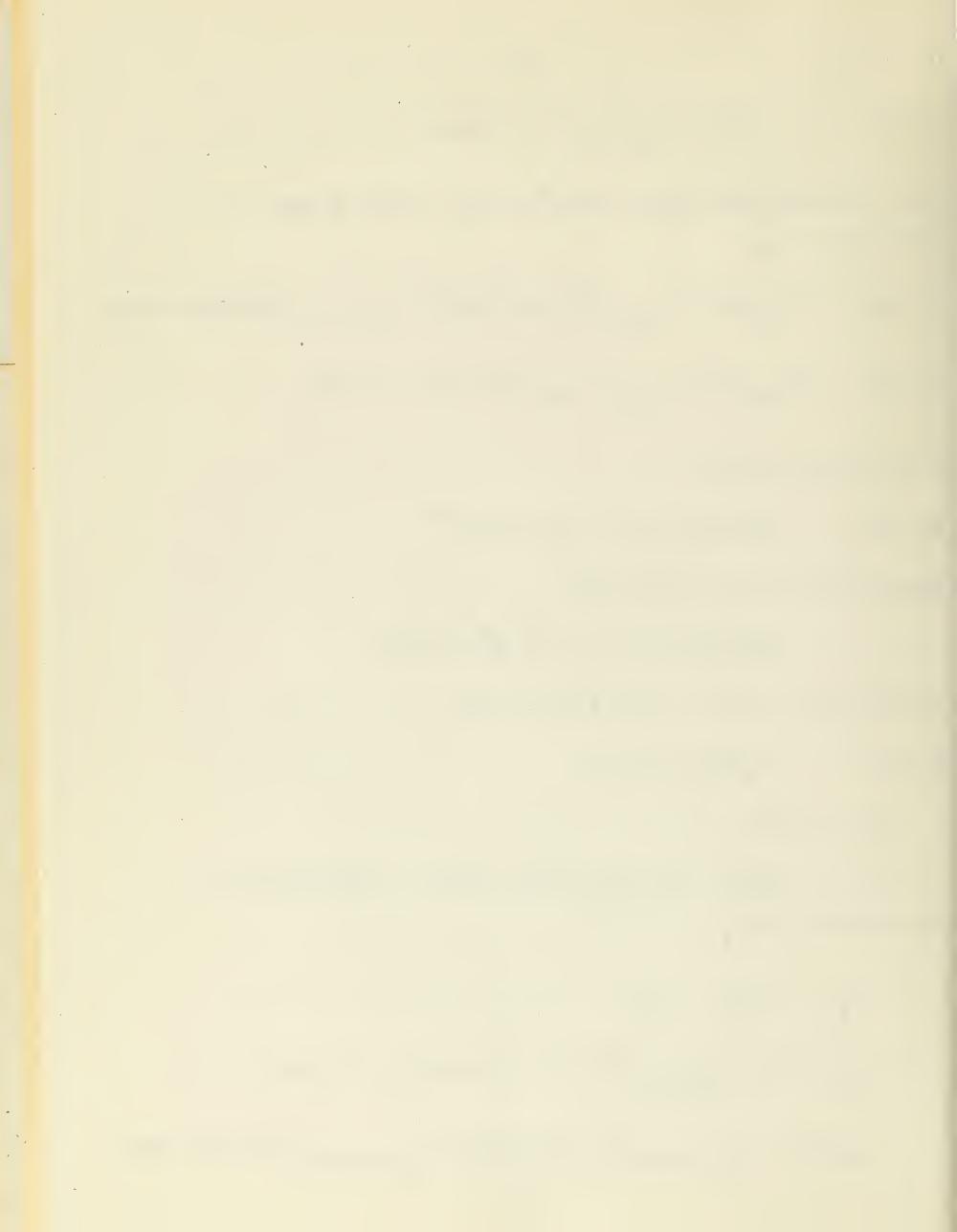
Now, we define

$$U_1 \rho^{(x)} = \int_{B_{2R}-B(x,\rho)} \Gamma(x-\xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$
,  $x \in B_R$ ,  $0 < \rho < R$ .

Then, for such x and p

$$U_{3\rho\alpha}(x) = -\int_{\partial B(x,\rho)} \Gamma(x-\xi)[f(\xi) - f(x)]d\xi_{\alpha}^{\dagger} + C_{\alpha}f(x)$$

$$U_{\mu\rho\alpha}(x) = \int_{B_{2R}-B(x,\rho)} \Gamma_{,\alpha}(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi = \int_{B_{2R}-B(x,\rho)} \Gamma_{,\alpha}(x-\xi)[f(\xi)-f(\xi)]d\xi$$



Clearly, as  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$ ,  $U_{3\rho\alpha}$  and  $U_{4\rho\alpha}$  tend uniformly on  $\overline{B}_R$  to

(1.5.15) 
$$U_{3a}(x) = C_a f(x)$$
,  $U_{4a} = \int_{B_{2R}} \prod_{\alpha} (x-\xi) [f(\xi)-f(x)] d\xi$ 

Thus, the formulas (1.5.8) follow and the second inequality in (1.5.9) follows immediately.

To complete the proof of the first inequality in (1.5.9), we note first that

(1.5.16) 
$$|U_{\mu\alpha}(x)-U_{\mu\alpha}(x)| \le C_3 \cdot h_{\mu}(f) \rho^{\mu}, x \in B_{\overline{R}}, 0 < \rho < R$$
.

But now, if x,  $x_1$ ,  $x_2 \in B_R$ , we obtain

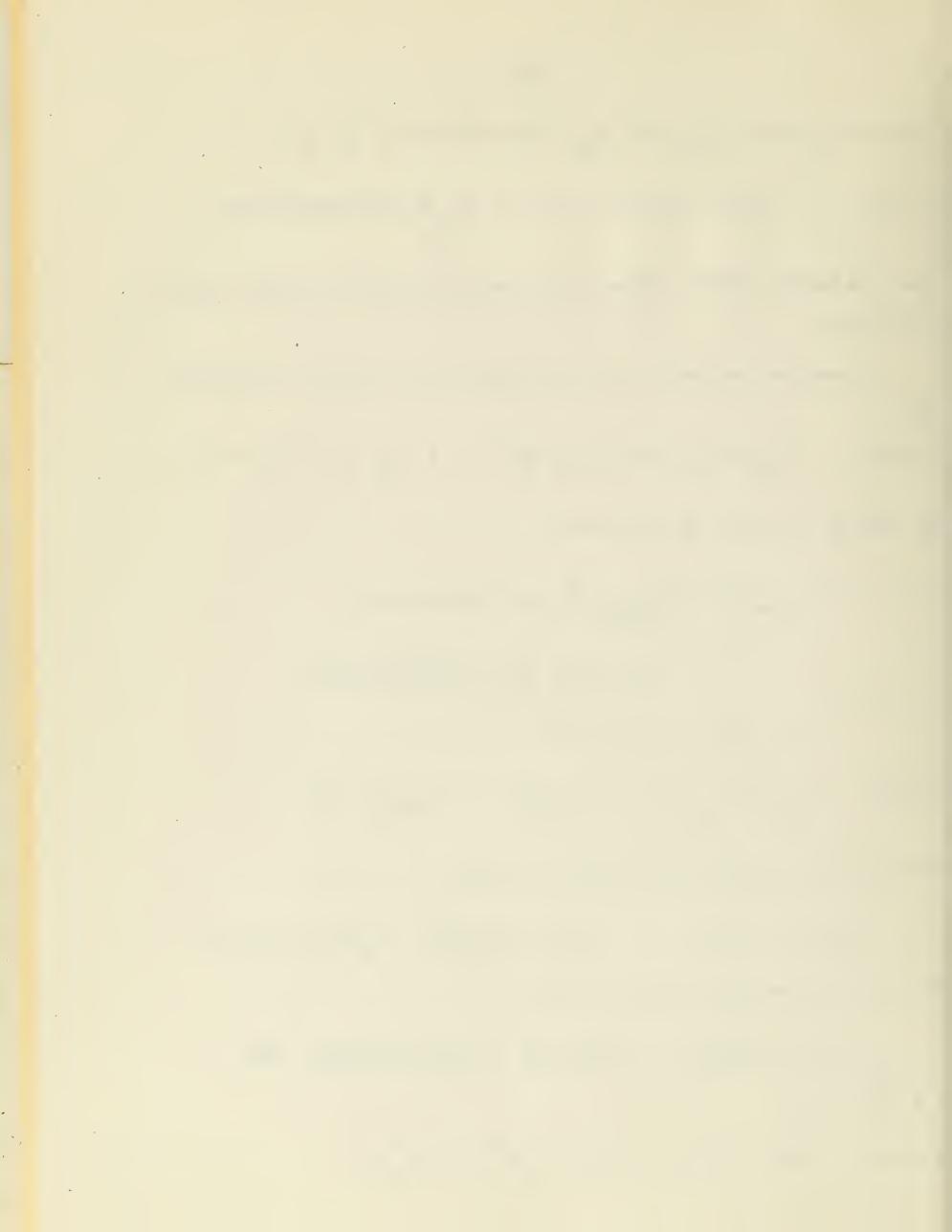
From (1.5.15), (1.5.16), and (1.5.17), we obtain

$$h_{\mu}(U_{\mu\alpha}) \le C_5 h_{\mu}(f)$$
,  $h_{\mu}(U_{3\alpha}) \le C_6 h_{\mu}(f)$ ,  $h_{\mu}(VU_{1}) \le C_7 h_{\mu}(f)$ .

The result follows from this and (1.5.14) .

COROLLARY: Suppose  $f \in C_{\mu}^{\circ}(\overline{B}_{R})$  and V is its potential. Then  $V \in C_{\mu}^{2}(\overline{B}_{R})$  and

(1.5.18) 
$$\Delta V(x) = f(x), x \in B_R, h_{\mu}(\nabla^2 V) \leq Ch_{\mu}(f)$$



Proof: It remains only to show that  $\Delta V = f$ . From (1.4.3) and (1.5.8), we conclude that

$$V_{,\alpha}(x) = \int_{G} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$

$$(1.5.19) \qquad \Delta V(x) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} C_{0\alpha\alpha}f(x) + \int_{B_{\mathbb{R}}} \Delta K_{0}(x-\xi)[f(\xi)-f(x)]d\xi ,$$

(1.5.20) 
$$C_{oaa} = + \int_{B(0.1)} K_{0,a}(y) y^a dS(y)$$

Since  $\Delta K_0(y) = 0$  if  $y \neq 0$ , the integral in (1.5.19) vanishes. From the formulas (1.3.2) for  $K_0$ , we see that

$$\frac{y}{\sum_{\alpha=1}^{\infty}} C_{0\alpha\alpha} = \int_{\partial B(0,1)} |y|^{-1} |y|^{-\frac{1}{2}} |y|^{-\frac{1}{2}} |y|^{2} dS(y) = 1.$$

## EXERCISE

- 1. Prove Theorem 1.5.3.
- 2. Prove that if f satisfies a Dini condition

$$|f(x_2)-f(x_1)| \leq \varphi(|x_2-x_1|) , \qquad \lim_{\rho \to \infty} \varphi(\rho) = 0 ,$$

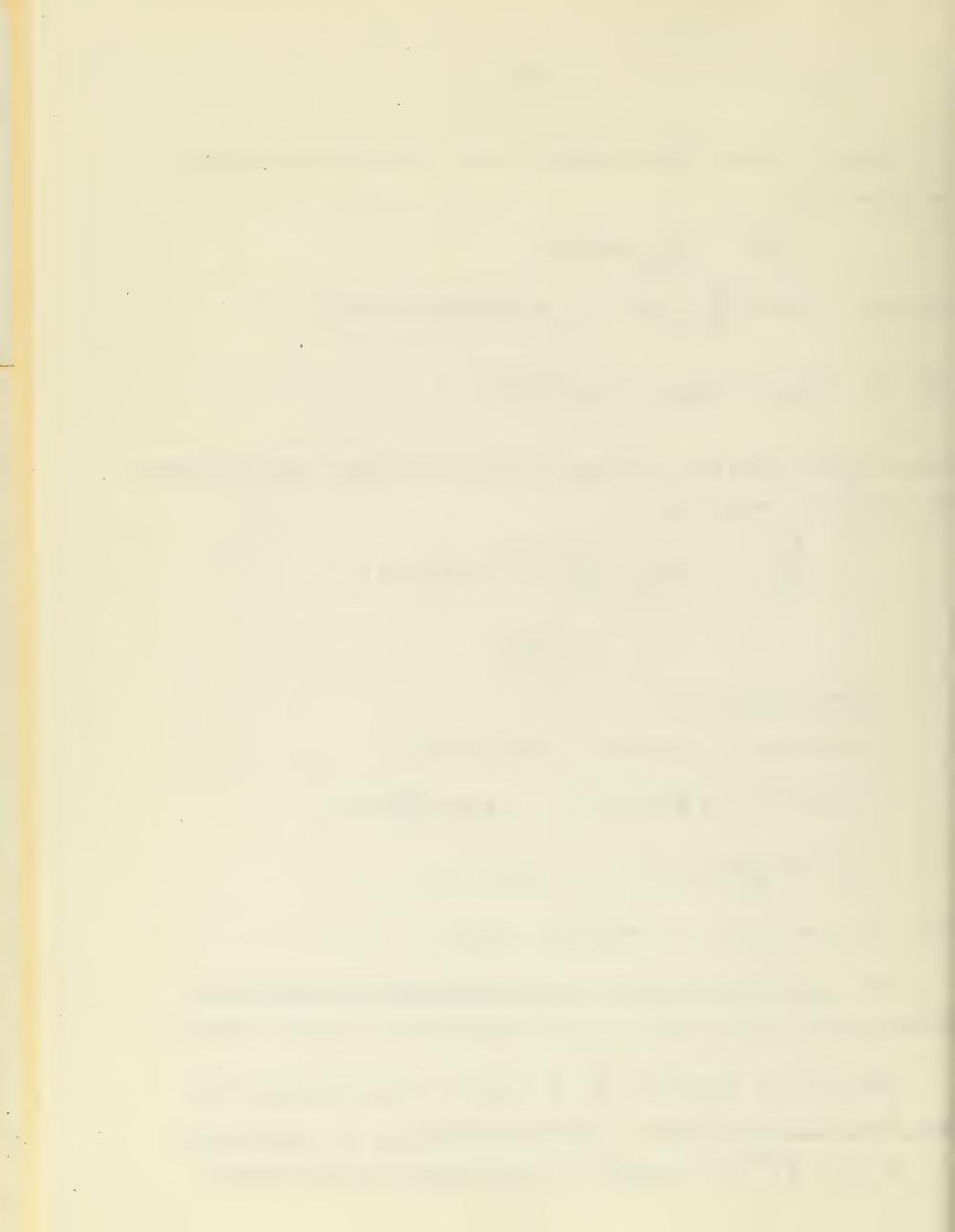
$$\int_0^{2R} \rho^{-1} \varphi(\rho) d\rho < \infty , \qquad x_1, x_2 \in \overline{\mathbb{B}}_R ,$$

then  $U \in C^1$  on  $\overline{B}_R$  if U is defined by (1.5.1).

- 1.6. The maximum principle for elliptic equations of the second order.

  By combining the results of §§ 1.5 and 1.6, we conclude the following theorem:
- THEOLEM 1.6.1: Suppose  $f \in C_{\mu}^{\circ}$  on  $\overline{B}_{R}$  and  $u^{*}$  is continuous on  $\partial B_{R}^{\bullet}$ .

  Then there is a unique function u which is continuous on  $\overline{B}_{R}^{\bullet}$ , coincides with  $u^{*}$  on  $\partial B_{R}^{\bullet}$ ,  $\in C^{2+\mu}(B_{r}^{\bullet})$  for each r < R, and satisfies Poisson's equation



$$\Delta u(x) = f(x)$$
,  $x \in B_R$ .

Proof: For, we may let u = U + H where U is the potential of f and H is that harmonic function which coincides with  $u^*-U$  on  $B_R$ .

In Chapter III, we shall discuss the existence theory and differentiability properties for the solutions of general elliptic equations of the second order:

(1.6.1) 
$$a^{\alpha\beta}(x)u_{,\alpha\beta}(x) + b^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + cu = f$$

We conclude this chapter with a proof due to E. Hopf [ ] of the maximum principle for equations of the form (1.6.1) in which

(1.6.2) 
$$c(x) = 0$$
,  $f(x) \ge 0$ ,  $x \in G$ .

THEOREM 1.6.2: Suppose  $u \in C^2(G)$ ,  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , c,  $f \in C^0(G)$ , c and f satisfy (1.6.2), u is a solution of (1.6.1),  $x_0 \in G$ , and u takes on its maximum value at  $x_0$ . Then  $u(x) = u(x_0)$  for all x on the domain G.

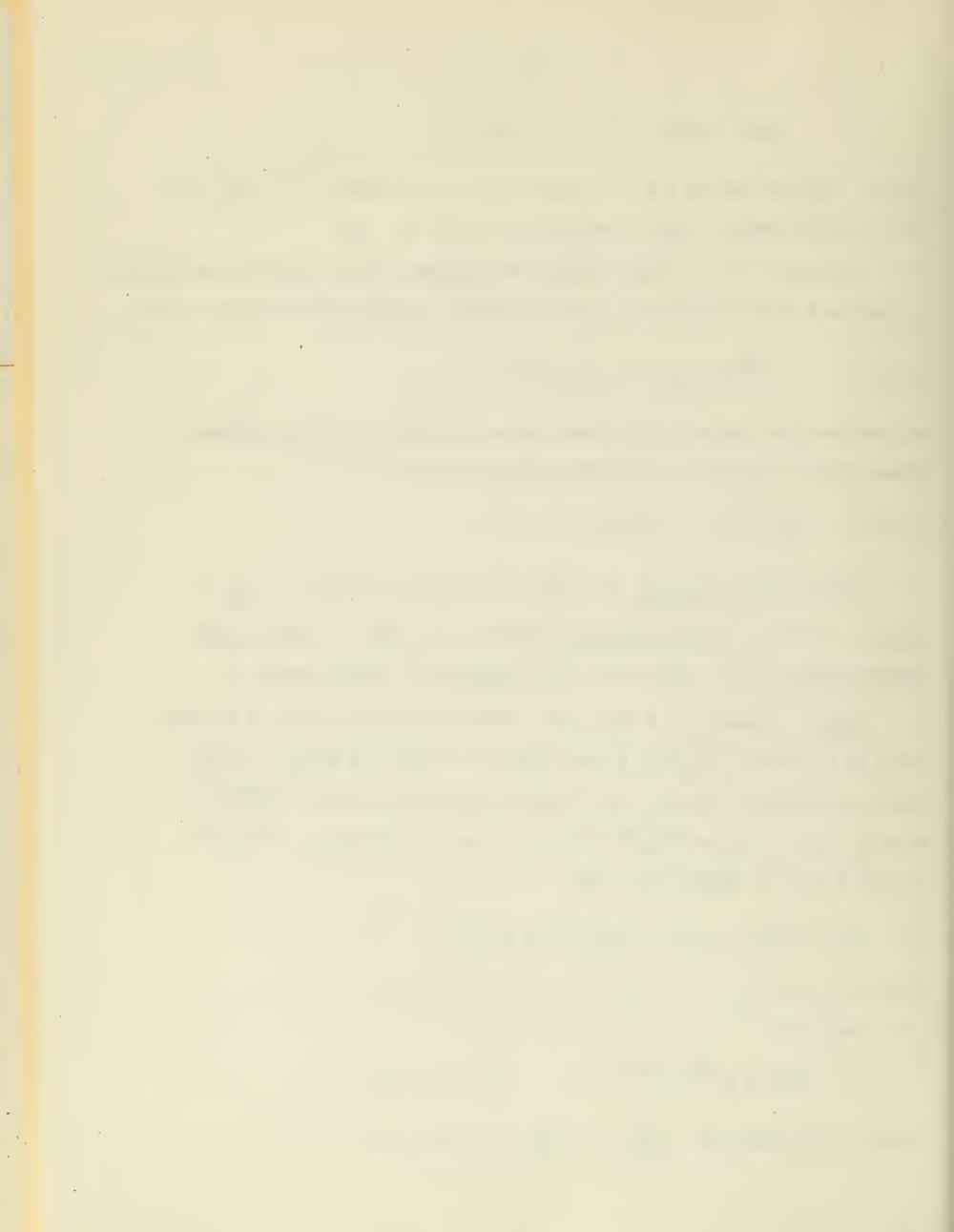
Proof: Suppose  $u(x) \neq u(x_0) = M$ . Then the set where u(x) < M is open. There is a sphere  $B(x_2,R) \subset G$  such that u(x) < M for  $x \in \overline{B(x_2,R)} - \{x_1\}$ , where  $x_1 \in \partial B(x_2,R)$  and  $u(x_1) = M$ . Finally, there is a sphere  $\overline{B(x_1,R)} \subset G$  with  $R_1 < R$ . Let  $S_1 = \overline{B(x_2,R)} \cap B(x_1,R)$  and  $S_2 = \partial B(x_1,R) - \overline{B(x_2,R)}$ , so that  $S_1 \cup S_2 = \partial B(x_1,R_1)$ . Then

$$u(x) \le M - 2$$
 on  $S_i$  and  $u(x) \le M$  on  $S_e$  for some  $\xi > 0$ .

Now, let

$$h(x) = e^{-\gamma r^2} - e^{-\gamma R^2}$$
,  $r = |x - x_2|$ 

Letting L $\varphi$  stand for  $a^{\alpha\beta}\varphi_{,\alpha} + b^{\alpha}\varphi_{,\alpha}$ , we see that



$$e^{\gamma r^2}$$
Lh =  $4\gamma^2 a^{\alpha\beta} (x^{\alpha} - x_2^{\alpha}) (x^{\beta} - x_2^{\alpha}) - 2\gamma [a^{\alpha\beta} \delta_{\alpha\beta} + b^{\alpha} (x^{\alpha} - x_2^{\alpha})]$ .

We can choose  $\gamma$  so large that Lh(x) > 0 in  $\overline{E(x_1,R_1)}$ . Finally

$$(1.6.3)$$
 h(x) < 0 on S<sub>e</sub>, h(x<sub>1</sub>) = 0.

Let

$$(1.6.4)$$
  $v(x) = u(x) + \delta h(x)$ ,  $\delta > 0$ ,

where  $\delta$  is small enough so that  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) < \mathbb{N}$  on  $S_i$ . From (1.6.3), we see that  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) < \mathbb{N}$  on  $\partial \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{R}_1)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}_1) = \mathbb{N}$  so that  $\mathbf{v}$  has a maximum at a point  $\mathbf{x}_3$  in  $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{R}_1)$  while  $\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{v}) > 0$  there.

But this would imply that (since all  $v_{\alpha}(x_3) = 0$ )

(1.6.5) 
$$a^{\alpha\beta}(x_3)v_{,\alpha\beta}(x_3) > 0$$
 but  $v_{,\alpha\beta}(x_3)\eta^{\alpha}\eta^{\beta} \le 0$  for all  $\eta$ .

Now, we may define new variables y by the rotation

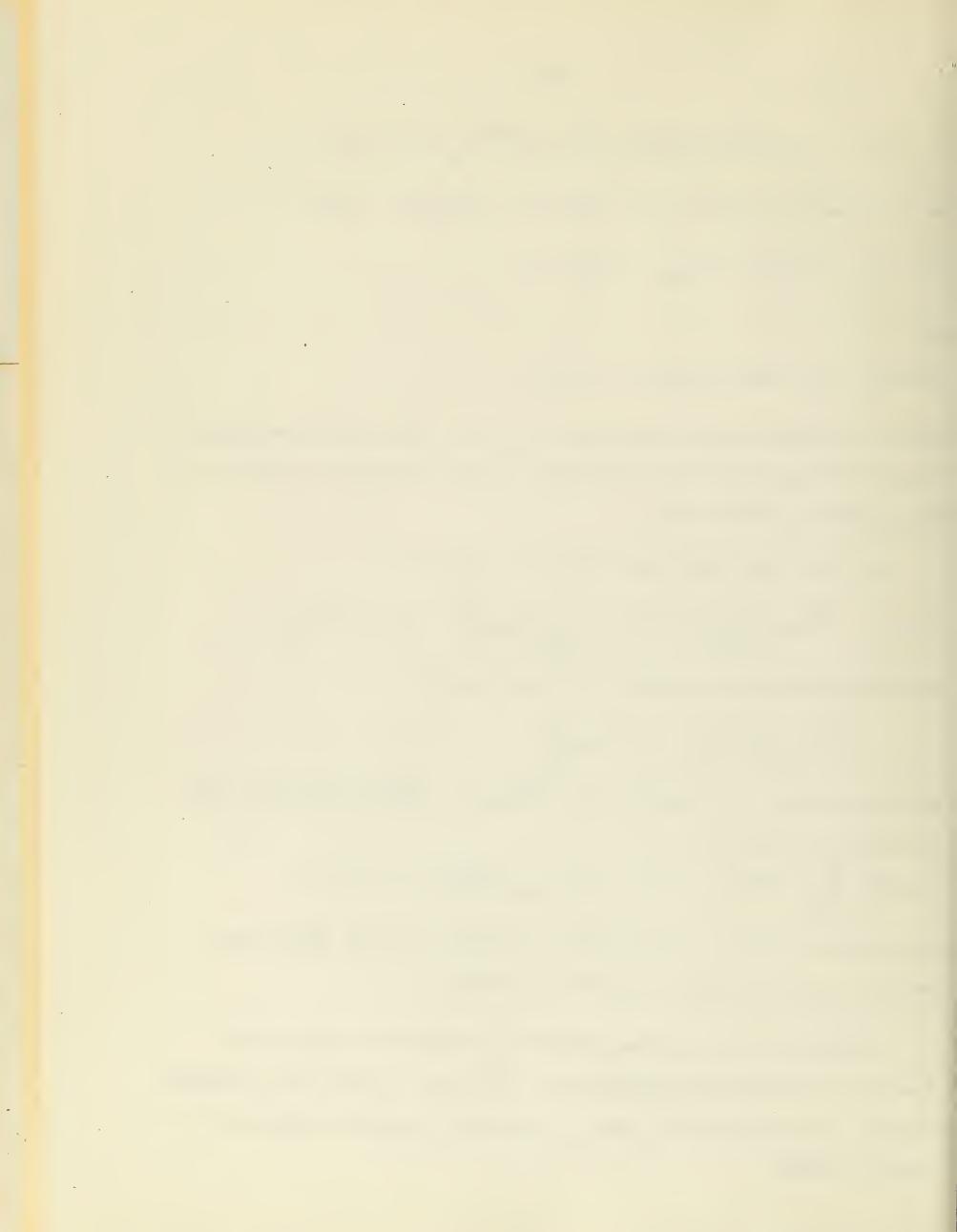
$$y^{\gamma} = c_{\alpha}^{\gamma} (x^{\alpha} - x_{3}^{\alpha}), \quad \zeta^{\gamma} = c_{\alpha}^{\gamma} \eta^{\alpha}$$

where the matrix c is chosen so that  $c^{-1}a(x_3)c = a(0)$  is diagonal. Then (1.6.5) is equivalent to

(1.6.6) 
$$\sum_{\gamma=1}^{\gamma} \hat{a}^{\gamma\gamma}(0)w_{,\gamma\gamma}(0) > 0 \text{ but } w_{,\gamma\delta}(0)\zeta^{\gamma}\zeta^{\delta} \leq 0 \text{ for all } \zeta$$

where all the  $a^{\gamma\gamma} > 0$ . But the first inequality in (1.6.6) implies that some one  $w_{\gamma\gamma}(0) > 0$  which contradicts the second.

COROLLARY: If u and the coefficients satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1.6.2 except that we require  $c(x) \le 0$ , then u cannot have a positive maximum. If, also, f(x) = 0, then u has neither a positive maximum nor a negative minimum.



2.1 The spaces  $H_p^m$  and  $H_{p0}^m$ . In this section, we define these spaces and prove a few theorems concerning them.

DEFINITION 2.1.1: Given a function u which is locally summable on a domain G, we define the G-Schwartz distribution  $L_u$  corresponding to u by the equation

(2.1.1) 
$$L_{\mathbf{u}}(g) = \int_{G} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \qquad \qquad \mathbf{g} \in C_{\mathbf{c}}^{\infty}(G)$$

We say that a G-Schwartz distribution  $\bigoplus_{p}$  iff it corresponds in the sense above to a function u in  $L_p(G)$ .

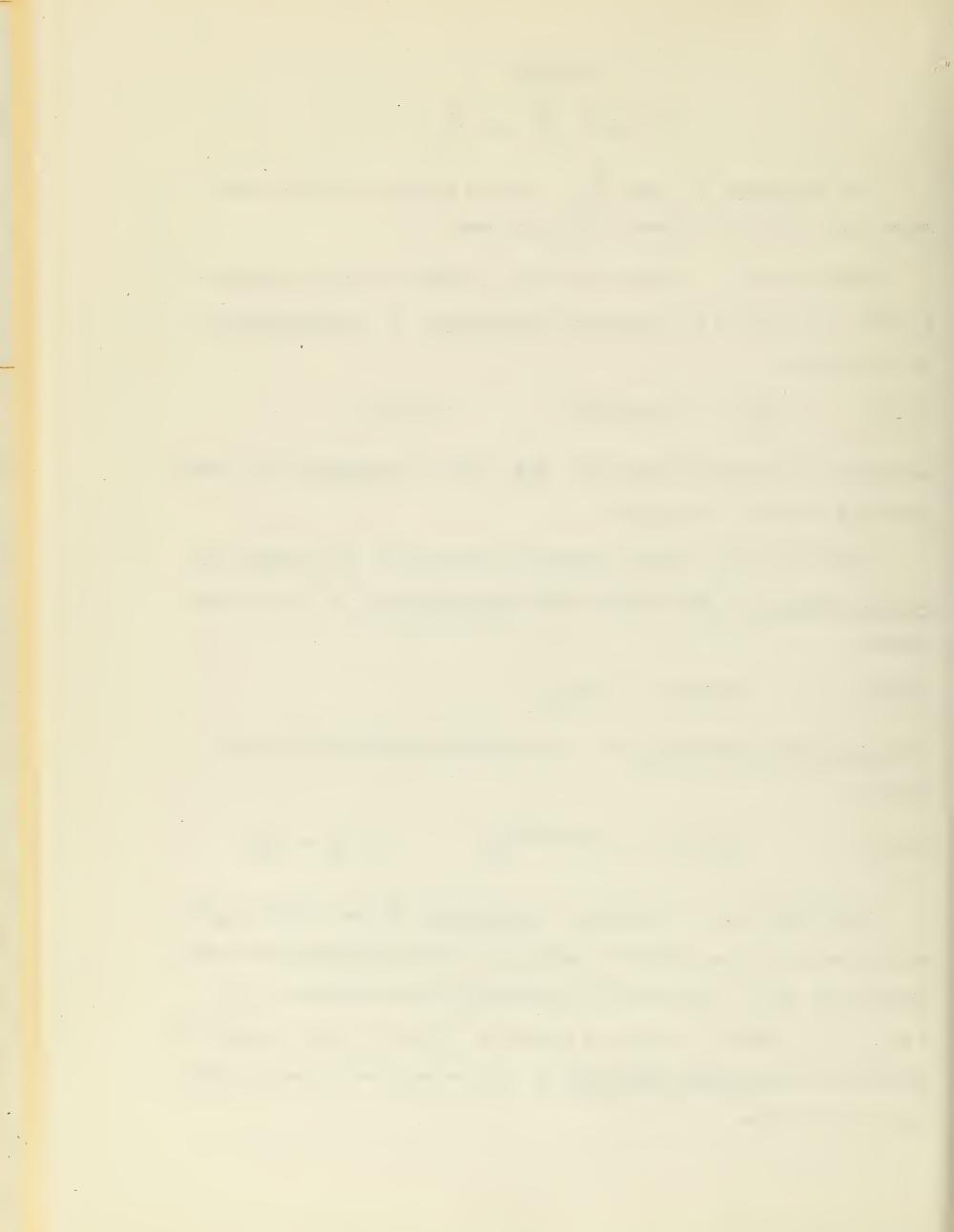
DEFINITION 2.1.2: Given a G-Schwartz distribution L, we define its partial derivative  $D_{\alpha}L(\alpha \text{ a single index})$  with respect to  $\mathbf{x}^{\alpha}$  by the usual equation

(2.1.2) 
$$(D_{\alpha}L)(g) = L(-g_{,\alpha})$$
;

The higher partial derivatives of L are defined by induction or by the equation

(2.1.3) 
$$(D_aL)(g) = L[(-1)^{|\alpha|}D_ag] \qquad (\alpha = \alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n).$$

DEFINITION 2.1.3: A function u is of class  $H_p^m$  on G iff  $u \in L_p(G)$  and all the partial derivatives of order  $\leq m$  of its corresponding G-Schwartz distribution G L. The function corresponding to the derivative  $D_a L_a$ ,  $a = a_1 \cdots a_n$  where  $0 \leq n \leq m$ , is denoted by  $D_a u$  or u, a and is called the corresponding distribution derivative of u; we make the convention that  $D_a u = u$  if |a| = 0.



REMARKS: It is clear that if u is of class  $H_p^m$  on G, its distribution derivatives are determined only up to additive null functions; moreover if  $u^*$  differs from u by a null function, then  $u^*$  is also of class  $H_p^m$  on G and has the same distribution derivatives. The definitions above extend to vector functions.

THEOREM 2.1.1: The space  $H_D^m(G)$  of classes of equivalent vector functions of class  $H_D^m$  on G with norm defined by

$$(2.1.u) ||u||_{p}^{m} = \left\{ \int_{G} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq m} |D_{\alpha}u^{i}|^{2} \right]^{p/2} dx \right\}^{1/p} \quad (u=u,...,u^{N})$$

is a Banach space. If p = 2, the space is a Hilbert space if we define

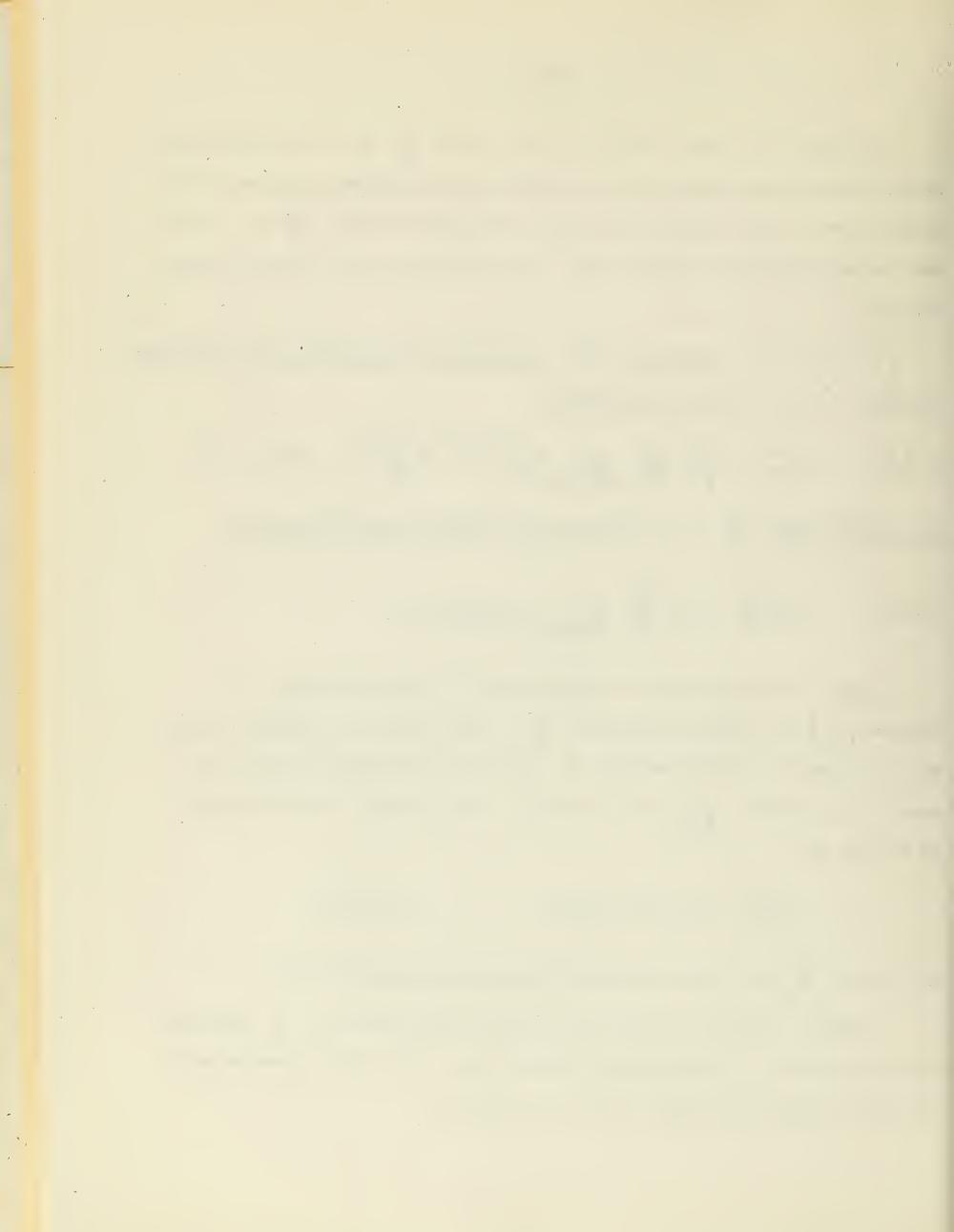
(2.1.5) 
$$(u,v)_2^m = \int_G \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{0 \le |\alpha| \le m} D_\alpha u^i D_\alpha v^i dx$$
.

<u>Proof:</u> The only property requiring proof is the completeness. So suppose  $\{u_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $H_p^m$ . Then each of the sequences  $D_{\alpha}u_n$ , with  $0 \le |\alpha| \le n$ , is a Cauchy sequence in  $L_p(G)$  and so converges in  $L_p(G)$  to some vector function  $\varphi_{\alpha}(=u \text{ if } |\alpha|=0)$ . But, for each  $\alpha$  with  $0 \le |\alpha| \le n$ , it follows that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} D_{\alpha} L_{u_{n}}(g) = D_{\alpha} L_{u}(g) , g \in C_{\mathbf{c}}^{\infty}(G)$$

so that the  $\phi_a$  are the corresponding distribution derivatives of u.

REMARKS: It will be convenient to call these elements of  $H_p^m$  functions and to say that u is continuous, harmonic, etc., iff some representative of the class forming the element has these properties.



THEOREM 2.1.2: (a) If  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  and  $D \subset G$ , then  $u \in H_p^m(D)$ .

- (b) If  $u \in C_1^{m-1}$  (i.e.  $u \in C^m$  with all the  $D_{\alpha}u$  Lipschitz with  $0 \le |\alpha| \le m-1$ )

  on each domain  $D \subset G$  and if u and its partial derivatives of order  $\le m$ all  $\in L_p(G)$  then  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ .
- (c) If  $u \in H_p^m$  on each domain DCCG and if all the  $D_{\alpha}u$ , with  $0 < |\alpha| < m$ ,  $\in L_p(G)$ , then  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ .
  - (d) If  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ ,  $g \in C_1^{m-1}$  on G, and g has compact support on G, then

(2.1.6) 
$$\int_{G} (-1)^{|\alpha|} g_{\alpha}(x) u(x) dx = \int_{G} g(x) u_{\alpha}(x) dx$$
,  $0 \le |\alpha| \le m$ 

For (a), (b), and (c) are obvious and (d) follows from the definition of distribution derivative (def. 2.1.2) by a straightforward approximation (of the function g).

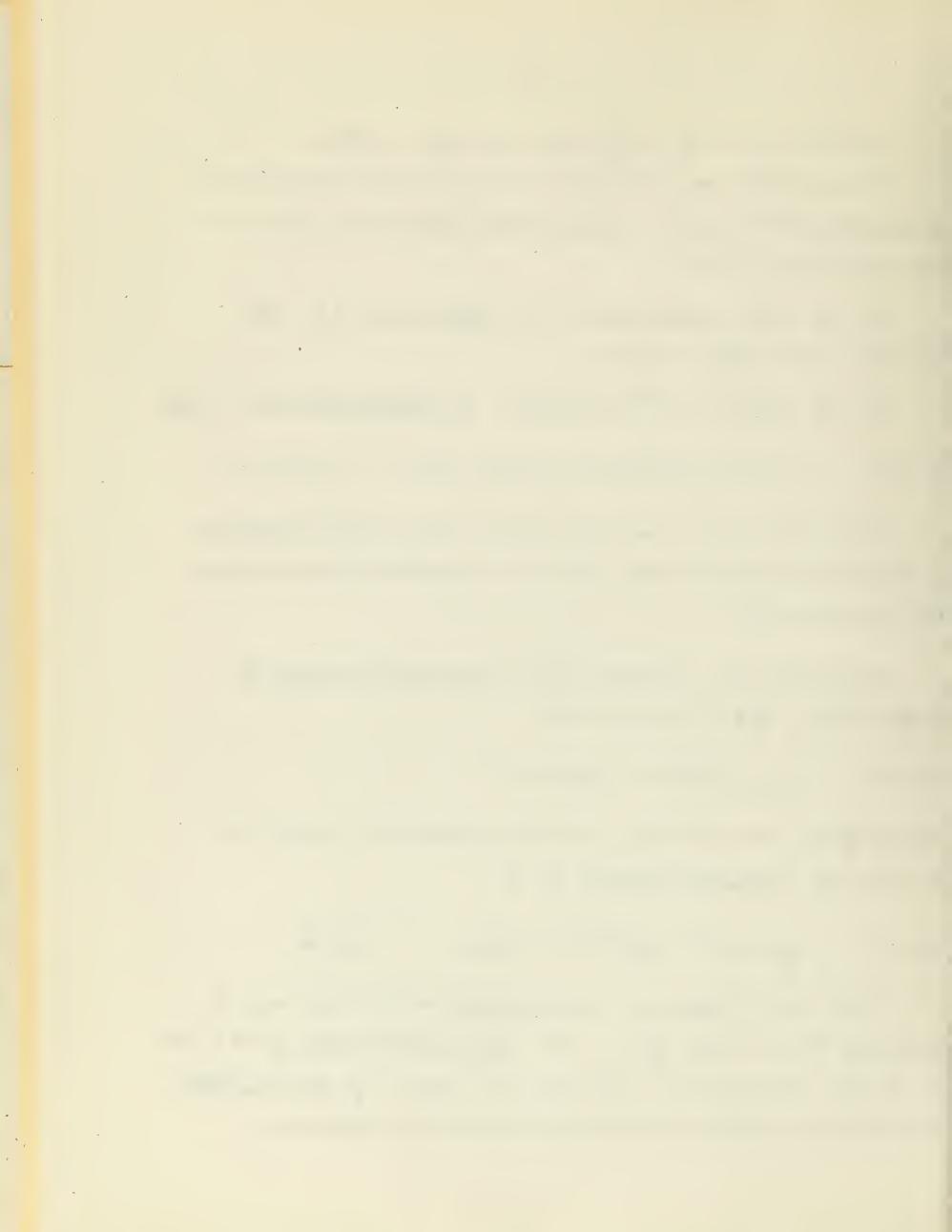
DEFINITION 2.1.4: A function  $\varphi$  is a (Friedrichs) mollifier iff  $\Lambda(\varphi) \subset B(0,1), \ \varphi \in C^{\infty}$  everywhere and

(2.1.7) 
$$\int_{B(0,1)} \varphi(x) dx = \int_{E} \varphi(x) dx = 1$$
.

Suppose  $\varphi$  is a given mollifier, u is locally summable on G, and  $\rho > 0$ . We define the  $\varphi$ -mollified function up by

(2.1.8) 
$$u_{\rho}(x) = \rho^{-3} \int_{G} \varphi[\rho^{-1}(\xi - x)] u(\xi) d\xi, \quad x \in G\rho$$

LEMMA 2.1.1: Suppose  $\rho$  is any mollifier,  $u \in L_p(G)$ , and  $u_p$  is defined by (2.1.8). Then  $u_p(x) \longrightarrow u(x)$  almost everywhere and  $u_p \longrightarrow u$  in  $L_p$  on each  $D \subset G$  as  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$ . For each  $\rho > 0$ ,  $u \not \in C^\infty(G_p)$  and its partial derivatives are obtained by differentiating under the integral sign,



Proof: For almost every x,

$$\lim_{\rho \to \infty} |B(x,\rho)|^{-1} \int_{B(x,\rho)} |u(\xi) - u(x)| d\xi = 0.$$

For any such x,

(2.1.9) 
$$|u_{\rho}(x)-u(x)| = |\rho^{-1}|_{B(x,\rho)} \varphi[\rho^{-1}(\xi-x)] \cdot [u(\xi)-u(x)] d\xi | \longrightarrow 0.$$

Next, suppose DCCG. Then we may find a domain  $\Delta$   $\rightarrow$  DCCACCG and a sequence  $\{v_n\}$  of continuous functions on  $\overline{\Delta}$  such that  $v_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $L_p(\overline{\Delta})$ . Now, from (2.1.8), we obtain

(2.1.10) 
$$|v_{n\rho}(x) - u_{\rho}(x)| \leq K \rho^{-1} \int_{B(x,\rho)} |v_{n}(\xi) - u(\xi)| d\xi$$
,  $x \in D$ ,  $B(x,\rho) \subset \Delta$ .

Applying the Holder inequality to the right side of (2.1.10) and then integrating over D, assuming  $\overline{\mathbb{D}} \subset \Delta_{\rho}$ , we obtain

(2.1.11) 
$$\int_{D} |v_{np}(x) - u_{p}(x)|^{p} dx \leq K^{1} \int_{\Delta} |v_{n}(\xi) - u(\xi)|^{p} d\xi$$

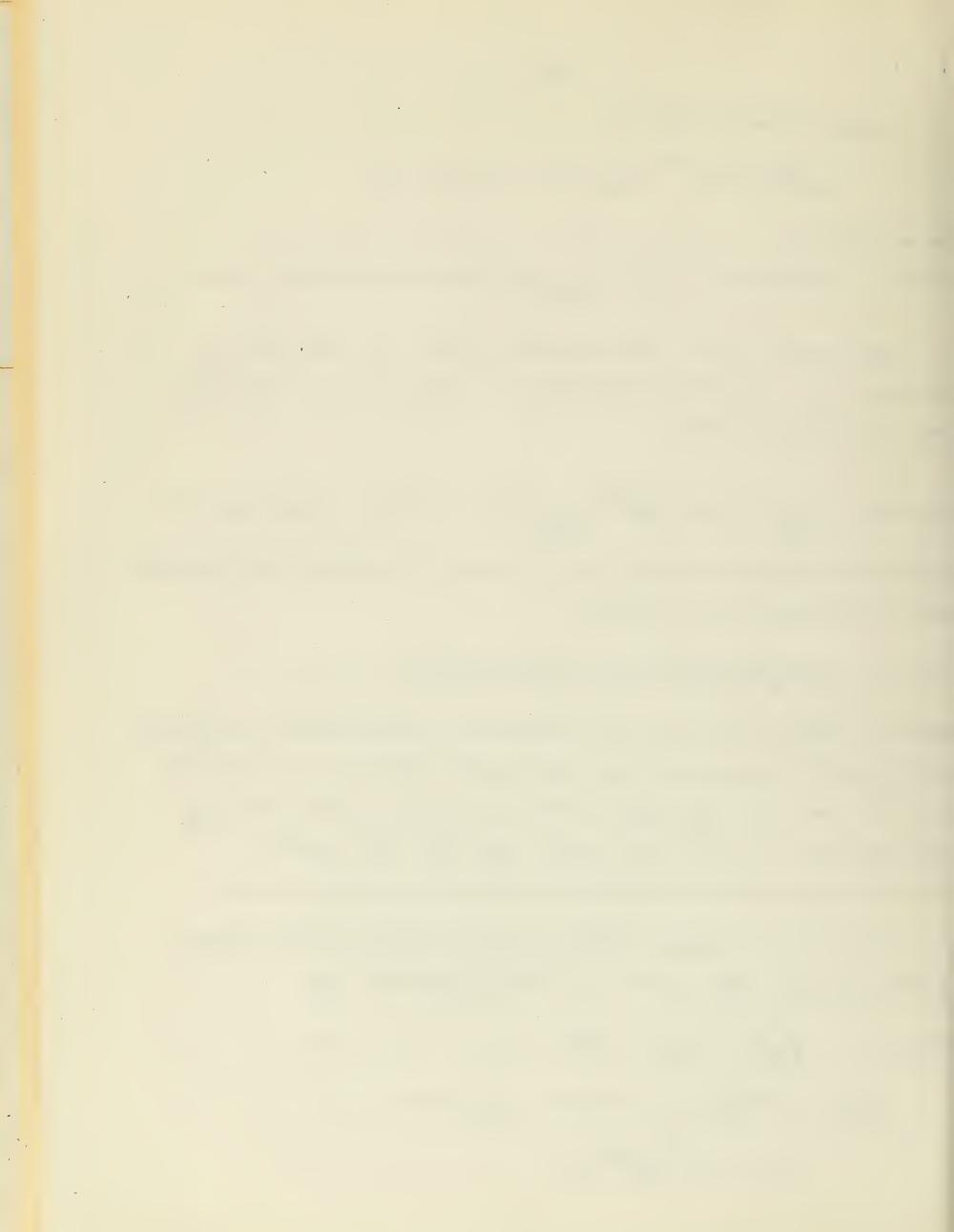
Hence, if  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}\subset\Delta\rho_0$ , and  $\epsilon>0$ , we first choose an n so large that  $\|\mathbf{v}_n-\mathbf{u}\|_p^0<\epsilon/3$  and  $\|\mathbf{v}_n-\mathbf{u}\|_p^0<\epsilon/3$ , the norm being that in  $L_p(\mathbb{D})$ . For that n we can choose a  $\delta>0$  so small that  $\|\mathbf{v}_n-\mathbf{v}_n\|_p^0<\epsilon/3$  for all  $\rho$  with  $0<\rho<\delta$  (since  $\mathbf{v}_n$  tends uniformly to  $\mathbf{v}_n$  on  $\overline{\mathbb{D}}$ ). For such  $\rho$ ,  $\|\mathbf{u}_p-\mathbf{u}\|_p^0<\epsilon$ . The last statement follows from the convergence theorems for the Lebesgue integral.

THEOREM 2.1.3: Suppose  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  and  $u_p$  is defined by (2.1.8), p being a given mollifier. Then  $u_p \longrightarrow u$  in  $H_p^m(D)$  for each DCCG and

(2.1.12) 
$$\varphi_{\alpha}(x) = D_{\alpha}u_{\rho}(x) \text{ if } \varphi_{\alpha} = u_{\alpha}, \quad 1 \leq |\alpha| \leq m.$$

Proof: If  $\overline{B(x,\rho)} \subset G$ , the function  $g_{x\rho}$  defined on G by

$$g_{x_{i}}(\xi) = \rho^{-1} \varphi[\rho^{-1}(\xi - x)]$$



 $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{c}}^{\mathbf{c}}$  (G). Hence, using Lemma 2.1.1 and the definitions, we see that

$$D_{\alpha}u_{f}(x) = \int_{G} (-1)^{|\alpha|} D_{\alpha}(\xi) g_{xf}(\xi) u(\xi) d\xi$$

$$= \int_{G} g_{xf}(\xi) D_{\alpha}u(\xi) d\xi = \Psi_{\alpha f}(x) .$$

The remaining statements follow from Lemma 2.1.1.

REMARK: It is not known (and the writer believes it is not true) that a function  $u \in H_p^m$  on a domain G with sufficiently wild boundary can be approximated over the whole of G by functions of class  $C^m$  on a domain containing  $G \cup \partial G$ . We shall prove this, however, for domains G of class  $C^m$  in Section 2-4.

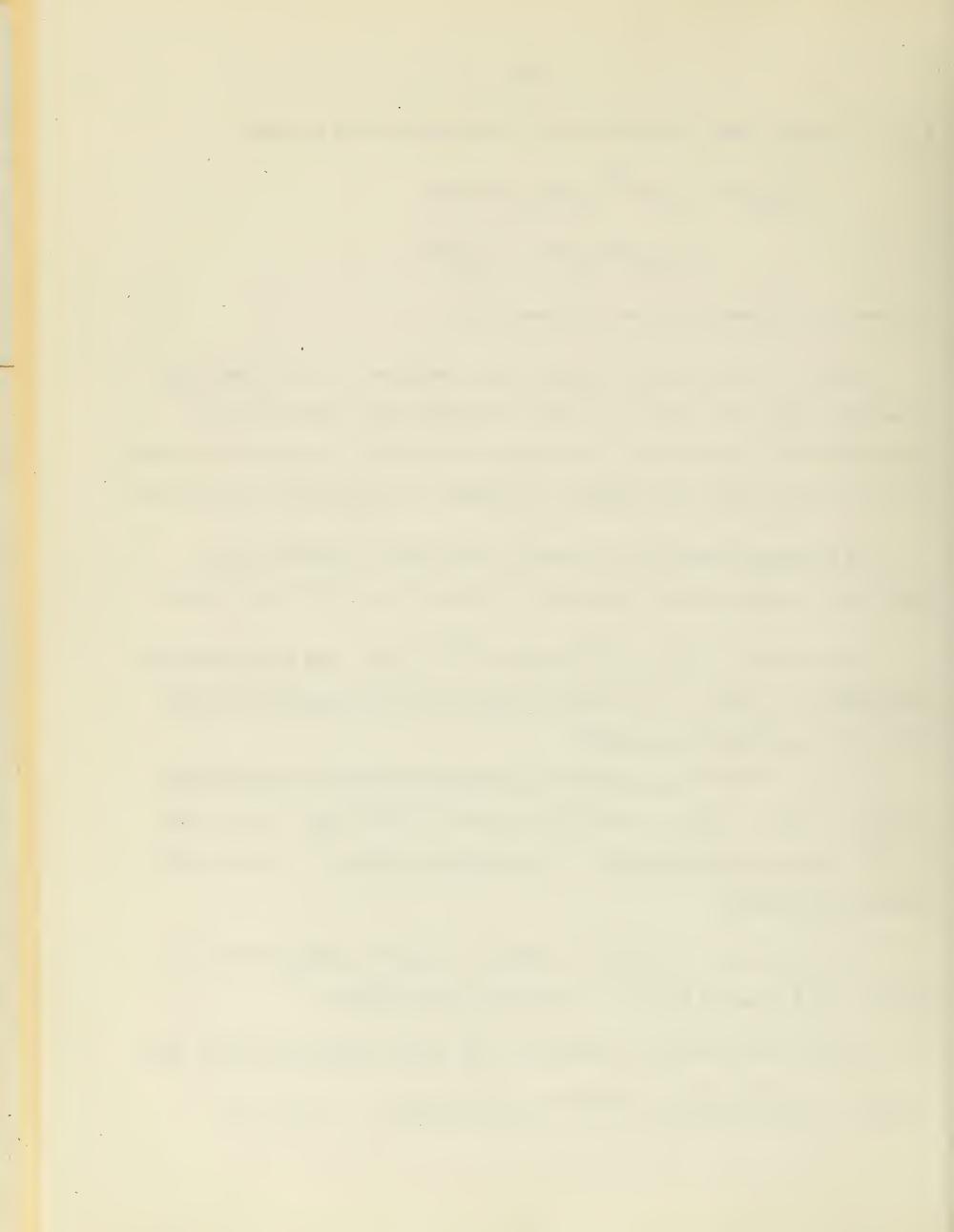
The following theorem is an immediate consequence of Theorems 2.1.1, 2.1.2 b and c, and 2.1.3 and the details of its proof are left to the reader.

THEOR M 2.1.4: (a) If  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  and  $\zeta \in C_1^{m-1}(G)$  and  $\zeta$  and its derivatives are bounded on G, then  $\zeta u \in H_p^m(G)$  and its derivatives are obtained from those of  $\zeta$  and u by their usual formulas.

(b) If x = x(y) is a regular (all derivatives bounded) transformation of class  $C^m$  from H onto G,  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ , and v(y) = u[x(y)] for y on H, then  $v \in H_p^m(H)$  and the derivatives of v are related to those of u by the usual laws of the Calculus.

DIFINITION 2.1.5: A function  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  is said to  $G \mapsto H_{p0}^m(G)$  iff  $\exists$  a sequence  $\{u_n\}$ , each  $u_n \in C_c^\infty(G)$ , such that  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ .

THEOREM 2.1.5(Poincare's inequality): If  $u \in H_{p0}^{m}(G)$  and  $G \subset B(x_0, R)$ , then (2.1.13)  $\int_{G} |\nabla^{k} u(x)|^{p} dx \leq p^{k-m} R^{(m-k)p} \int_{G} |\nabla^{m} u(x)|^{p} dx$ ,  $0 \leq k < m$ .



<u>Proof:</u> We shall prove this for m=1,k=0; the general result follows easily by induction, since if  $u \in H_D^m(G)$ ,  $\nabla^k u \in H_D^{m-k}(G)$ .

From Definition 2.1.5, it suffices to prove the theorem in the case that  $u \in C^1[B(x_0,R)]$ . Taking polar coordinates  $(r,\zeta)$   $(\zeta \text{ on } \partial B(0,1))$  with pole at  $x_0$  and setting  $v(r,\zeta) = u(x_0 + r\zeta)$ , we obtain

(2.1.14) 
$$\int |\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r},\zeta)|^p d\Sigma(\zeta) = \int |\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r},\zeta) - \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{R},\zeta)|^p d\Sigma(\zeta)$$

$$\leq (\mathbf{R}-\mathbf{r})^{p-1} \int_{\mathbf{r}}^{\mathbf{R}} \int |\mathbf{v}_{,\mathbf{r}}(\mathbf{s},\zeta)|^p d\mathbf{r}d\Sigma(\zeta)$$

using the Holder inequality. The result (2.1.13) follows for m=1, k=0 from (2.1.14) and the fact that

$$\int_{B(\mathbf{x}_0,R)} |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})|^p d\mathbf{x} = \int_0^R \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{y}-1} \int_{\mathbf{z}} |\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r},\zeta)|^p d\mathbf{r} d\mathbf{z}.$$

COROLLARY: The space  $H_{p0}^{m}(G)$  is a closed linear subspace of  $H_{p0}^{m}(G)$  and, if G is bounded, the norm  $\|u\|_{p0}^{m}$  defined by

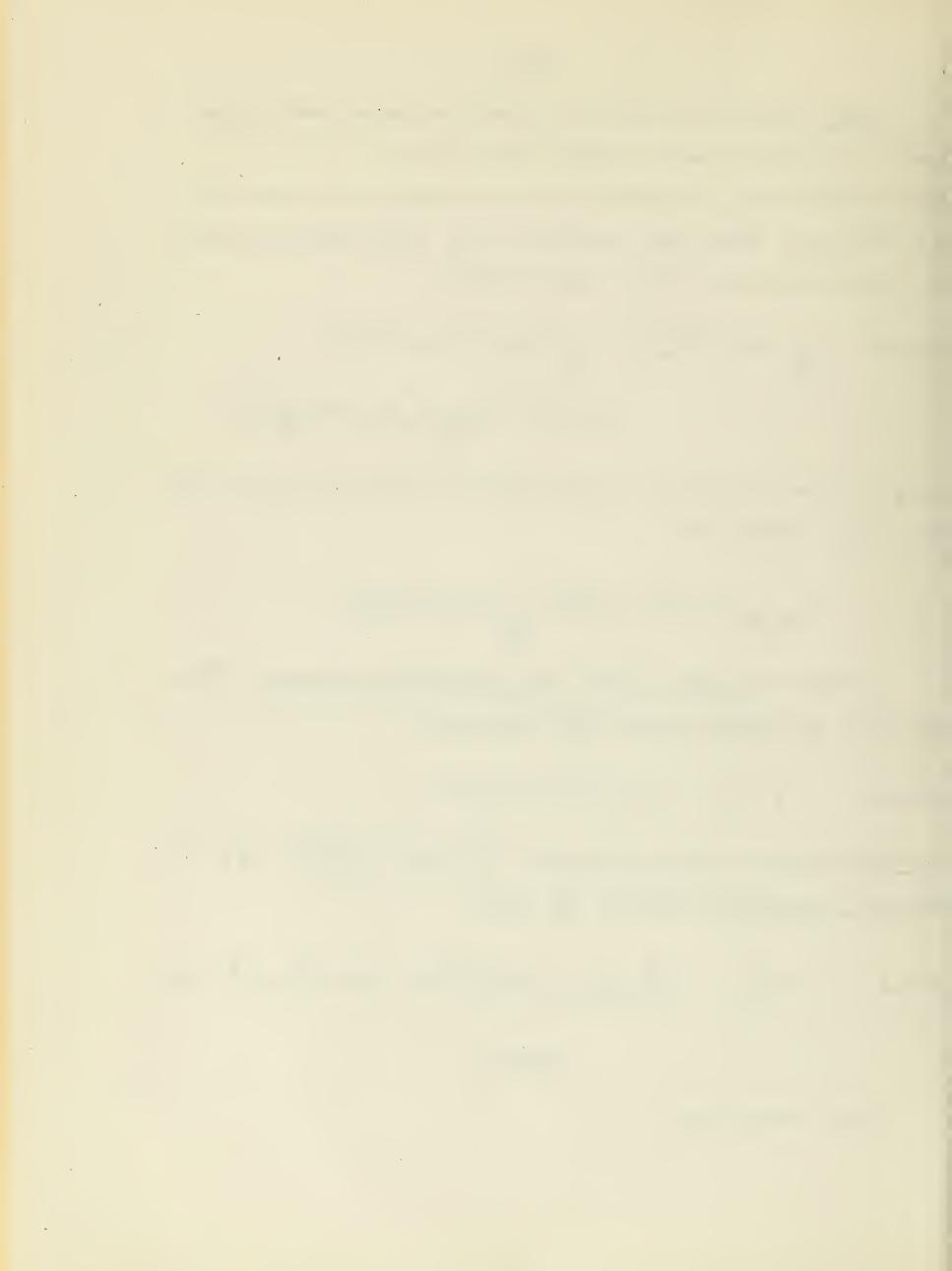
(2.1.15) 
$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{p0}^{m} = \left\{ \int_{G} |_{\mathfrak{D}}^{m} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})|^{p} d\mathbf{x} \right\}^{1/p}$$

is topologically equivalent to the norm  $\|u\|_p^m$  for u on  $H_{pO}^m(G)$ . If p = 2, the inner product may be taken on  $H_{2O}^m$  to be

(2.1.1) 
$$(u,v)_{20}^{m} = \int_{G} \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |u| = m} u_{\alpha}(x) \overline{v_{\alpha}(x)} dx$$
  $(u = u^{1},...,u^{N}, etc.)$ 

EXERCISE

Prove Theorem 2.1.4.



2.2. The Dirichlet problem for Laplace's equation with generalized boundary values. In this section, we interrupt our study of the spaces  $H_p^m$  and  $H_p^m$  in order to illustrate their use in the existence theory for elliptic differential equations. We also justify Dirichlet's Principle.

LEMMA 2.2.1: Suppose fall on the interval [a,b] of R and suppose that

(2.2.1) 
$$\int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} f(x)g(x)dx = 0$$

for all  $g \in C_c^{\infty}[a,b]$ . Then f(x) = 0 almost everywhere. If (2.2.1) holds only for all  $g \in C_c^{\infty}[a,b]$  for which

(2.2.2) 
$$\int_a^b g(x)dx = 0$$
,

then f(x) = a constant almost everywhere.

Proof: In the first case, it follows by approximations that (2.2.1) holds for all g which are bounded and measurable on [a,b]. Setting  $g(x)=sgn\ f(x)$ , (2.2.1) implies that

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| dx = 0.$$

In the second case, let  $g_1 \in C_c^{\infty}[a,b]$  with

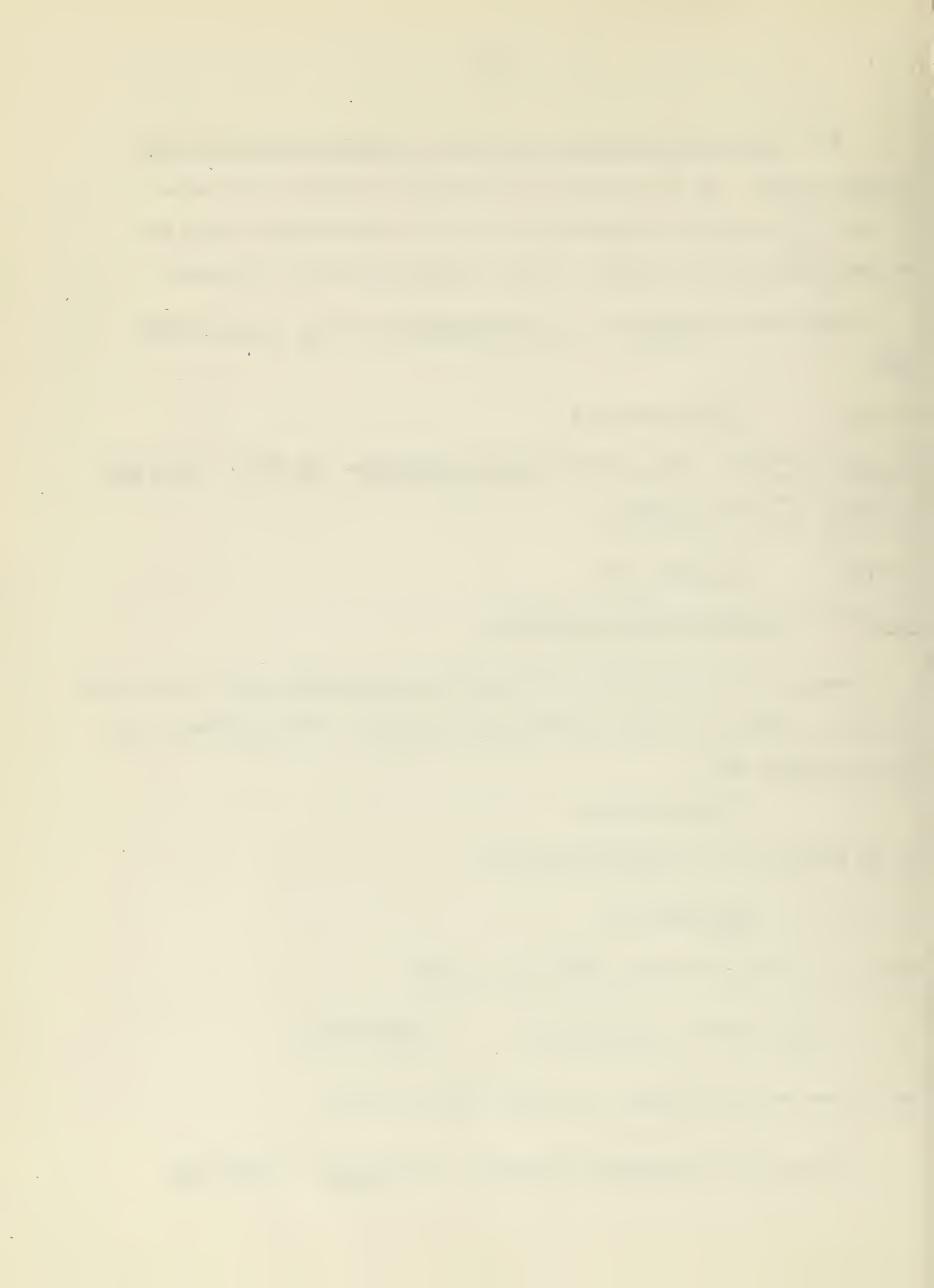
$$\int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{g}_{1}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} - 1.$$

Then, if g is any function  $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{c}}^{\infty}[a,b]$ , we have

$$g(x) = g^*(x) + g_1(x) \int_a^b g(x) dx$$
,  $\int_a^b g^*(x) dx = 0$ 

and, of course,  $g *_{\varepsilon} C_{c}^{\infty}[a,b]$ . The second result follows.

THEOREM 2.2.1 (Dirichlet's Principle): (a) Suppose us H2(G) and



(2.2.3) 
$$\int_G v_a u_a dx = 0 \qquad (a a single index)$$

for all  $v \in C_c^{\infty}(G)$ . Then, if  $u^* \in H_2^1(G)$  and  $u^* - u \in H_{20}^1(G)$ ,

(2.2.4) 
$$D(u^*,G) = D(u,G) + D(u-u^*,G),$$
  $(D(\mathscr{G}G) = \int_G (|\nabla G|^2 dx)$ 

- (b) If  $u \in H_2^1(D)$  for each  $D \in G$  and (2.2.3) holds for all  $v \in C_c^{\infty}(G)$ , then u is harmonic on G.
- Proof: (a) By approximations, (2.2.3) holds for all  $v \in H_{20}^{1}(G)$ . Then (2.2.4) follows by taking  $v = u^* u$ .
- (b) Suppose  $\overline{B(x_0,a)} \subset G$ , suppose  $0 < \xi < a$ , suppose  $Q(r) \in C^{\infty}$  for  $r \ge 0$  with Q(r) = 0 for  $r \ge a$  and Q(r) = Q(0) if  $0 \le r \le \xi$ , and let

$$v(x) = \varphi(|x-x_0|)$$
,  $\chi(r) = \int u(x_0 + r\zeta)d\sum(\zeta)$ .  $(\sum = \partial B(0,1))$ 

Then  $v \notin C_c^{\infty}(G)$ ,  $x \in L_1[\mathcal{E},a]$ . Integrating (2.2.3) by parts, we obtain

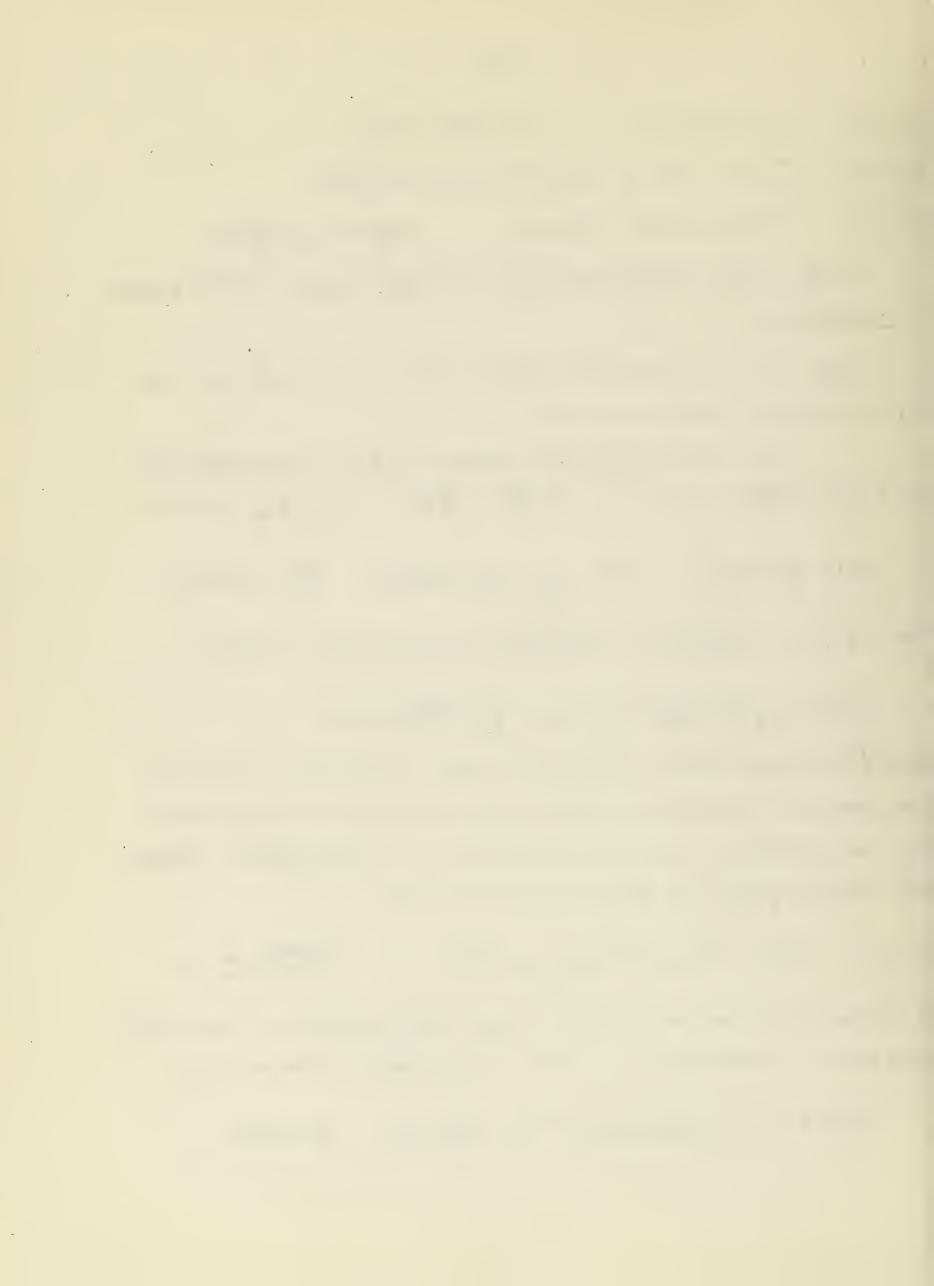
$$\int_{G} u \Delta v dx = \int_{E}^{a} X(r) \left[ \frac{d}{dr} (r^{\gamma - 1} \varphi') \right] dr = \int_{E}^{a} X(r) \varphi(r) dr = 0$$

where  $\Psi$  may be any function  $\varepsilon C_c^{\infty}[\varepsilon,a]$  for which (2.2.2) holds. It follows from Lemma 2.2.1 that  $\chi(r)$  = a constant almost everywhere on  $[\varepsilon,a]$ ; since  $\varepsilon$  and a are arbitrary, this holds for almost all r on  $[0,\delta(x_0,\partial G)]$ . Calling this constant  $[\sqrt[7]{\cdot u}(x_0)$ , we obtain by integration that

(2.2.5) 
$$\overline{u}(x_0) = |B(x_0,r)|^{-1} \int_{B(x_0,r)} u(x) dx$$
,  $\overline{B(x_0,r)} \subset G$ .

By letting  $r \longrightarrow 0$ , we see that  $\overline{u}(x_0) = u(x_0)$  almost everywhere. Then (2.2.5) holds with u replaced by  $\overline{u}$ , so that  $\overline{u}$  is harmonic by Theorem 1.2.3.

THEOREM 2.2.2: Suppose that u\*: H2(G) and that G is bounded.



Then there is a unique function  $u \in H_2^1(G)$  such that u is harmonic in G and  $u^* - u \in H_{20}^1(G)$ .

Proof: Setting  $u = u^* + U$ , we see that (2.2.3) holds iff

$$(2.2.5) \qquad \int_{G} \overline{\mathbf{v}}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{U}_{,\alpha} d\mathbf{x} = -\int_{G} \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha}^{*} \overline{\mathbf{v}}_{,\alpha} d\mathbf{x}$$

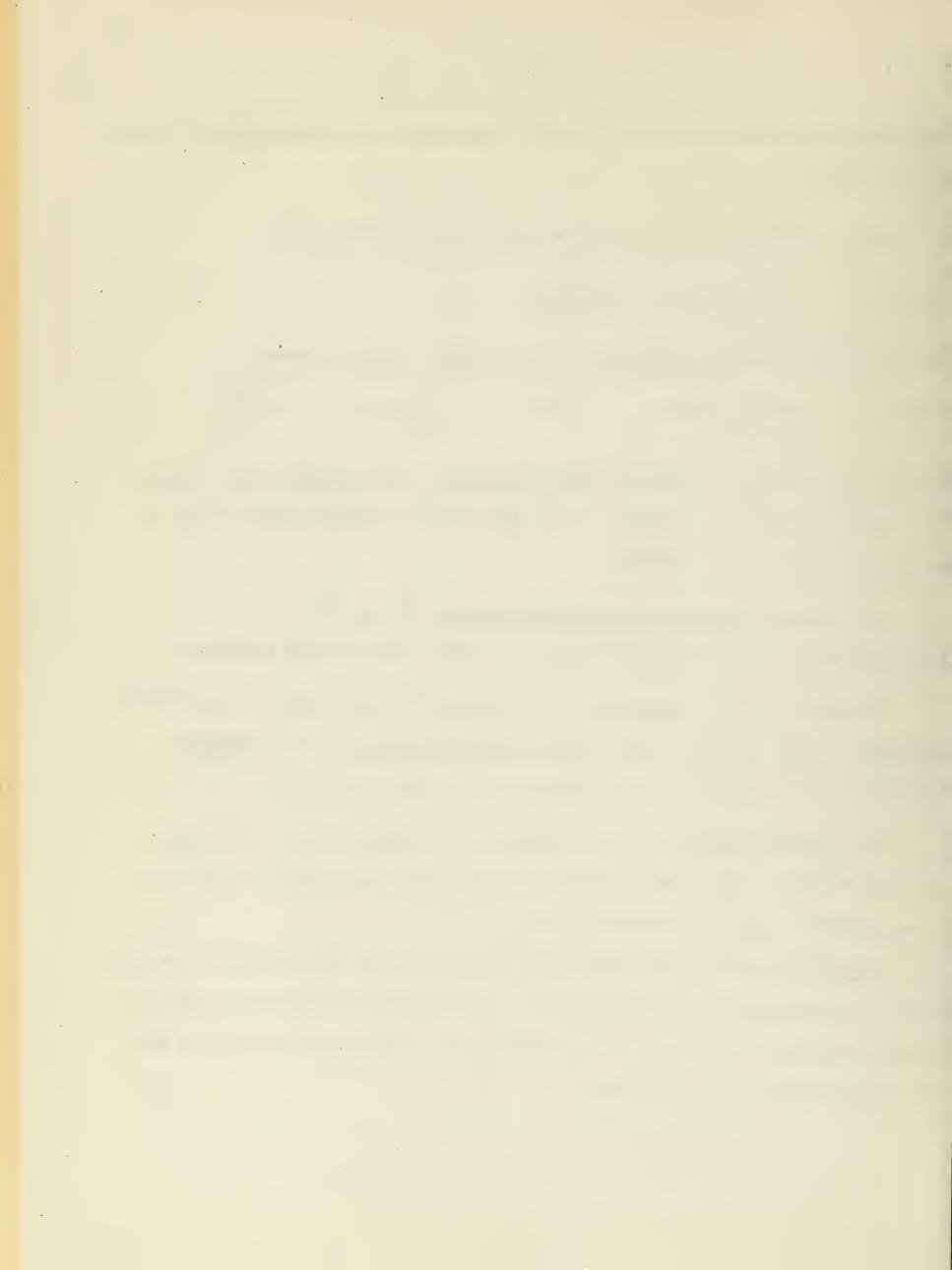
Using the inner product (2.1.15) with m = 1 on  $H_{20}^1$ , (2.2.5) becomes

(2.2.6) 
$$(U,v)_{20}^{1} = \overline{L}(v)$$
,  $\overline{L}(v) = -\int_{G} u_{,\alpha}^{*} \overline{v}_{,\alpha}^{-} dx$ ,  $v \in H_{20}^{1}$ 

where  $\overline{L}$  is clearly a conjugate-linear functional. From Hilbert space theory, it follows that there is a unique U in  $H_{20}^1$  such that (2.2.6) holds. Then u satisfies (2.2.3) and is harmonic.

- 2.3. Further theorems concerning the spaces  $H_p^m$  and  $H_{p0}^m$ . For functions in  $H_p^m$  on arbitrary regions, we have the following theorems:
- THEOREM 2.3.1: (a) Suppose  $u \in H_{p0}^{m}(G)$  and V(x) = u(x) for  $x \in G$  and V(x) = 0 elsewhere. Then  $V \in H_{p0}^{m}(E)$  and  $V \in H_{p0}^{m}(D)$  for any open set  $D \supset G$ . Moreover  $D_{\alpha}V(x) = D_{\alpha}u(x)$  on G and  $D_{\alpha}V(x) = 0$  for  $x \in E G$  if  $0 < |\alpha| < m$ .
- (b) Suppose  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ ,  $D \subset G$ ,  $v \in H_p^m(D)$ ,  $v u \in H_{pO}^m(D)$ , U(x) = v(x) on D, and U(x) = u(x) on G-D. Then  $U \in H_p^m(G)$ ,  $U u \in H_{pO}^m(G)$ , and  $D_\alpha U(x) = D_\alpha v(x)$  on D and  $D_\alpha U(x) = D_\alpha u(x)$  on D and  $D_\alpha U(x) = D_\alpha u(x)$  on D and  $D_\alpha U(x) = D_\alpha u(x)$  on D if  $D < |\alpha| < m$ .

Proof: (a) follows immediately from the definitions and theorems of Section 2.1.1. If we define V(x) = v(x) - u(x) on D and V(x) = 0 elsewhere, then the conclusions of part (a) hold with G replaced by D. But then U(x) = u(x) + V(x) on G so the results in (b) follow.



THEOREM 2.3.2: If p > 1, the most general linear functional in  $H_p^m(G)$  has the form

(2.3.1) 
$$f(u) = \int_{G} \frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^{N}} \sum_{0 \le |\alpha| \le m} A_{i}^{\alpha}(x) u_{,\alpha}^{i}(x) dx$$

where the  $A_i^{\alpha} \in L_q(G)$  where  $p^{-1} + q^{-1} = 1$ . If p = 1, each linear functional has the form (2.3.1) in which the  $A_i^{\alpha}$  are bounded and measurable.

<u>Proof</u>: It is clear that any expression (2.3.1) defines a linear functional on  $H_p^m$ . Conversely, let  $B_p$  be the space of all tensors  $\{p_a^i\}$  where each  $p_a^i$   $\in L_p(G)$  with norm

$$\|\varphi\| = \left\{ \int_{G} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{0 \le |\alpha| \le m} |\varphi_{\alpha}^{i}(x)|^{2} \right]^{p/2} dx \right\}^{1/p}$$

Then, from Theorem 2.1.1, it follows that the subspace M of all tensors  $\mathcal{L}$  where  $\mathcal{L}_{\alpha}^{i} = u_{,\alpha}^{i}$  and  $u \in H_{p}^{m}(G)$  is a closed linear submanifold of  $B_{p}$ . If we define  $F_{1}(\mathcal{L}) = f(u)$  for such tensors  $\mathcal{L}$ , we have ||F|| = ||f|| and  $F_{1}$  can be extended (Hahn-Banach Theorem, see §A) to a linear functional F over  $B_{p}$  with the same norm. But any linear functional F on  $B_{p}$  has the form

$$F(\varphi) = \int_{G} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{0 \le |\alpha| \le m} A_{i}^{\alpha}(x) \varphi_{\alpha}^{i}(x) dx$$

where the Ai have the stated properties.

From Theorem 2.3.2, we immediately obtain:

THEOREM 2.3.3: (a) A necessary and sufficient condition that  $u_n$  converges weakly to u ( $u_n \rightarrow u$ ) in  $H_p^m(G)$  is that each component  $u_{n,\alpha}^i$  of  $u_n$  monverges weakly in  $L_p(G)$  to  $u_{n,\alpha}^i$ .

(b) If 
$$u_n \rightarrow u$$
 in  $H_p^m(G)$  then  $u_n \rightarrow u$  in  $H_p^m(D)$  for  $D \subset G$ .



- (c) If  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ , G and H are bounded, x = x(y) is a regular transformation of class  $C^m$  from H onto G,  $v_n(y) = u_n[x(y)]$  and v(y) = u[x(y)], then  $v_n \to v$  in  $H_p^m(H)$ .
- (d) If  $u \to u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ ,  $\zeta \in C_1^{m-1}(G)$  and all the  $D_{\alpha}\zeta$  with  $0 < |\alpha| < m$  are bounded on G, then  $\zeta u_n \to \zeta u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ .
- (e) If p>1, bounded sets in Hpm(G) are conditionally compact with respect to weak convergence in Hpm(G).

## 2.4. Approximations; boundary values; compactness.

We wish now to prove that we can approximate to a function  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  over the whole of G by functions  $u_n$  of class  $C^m$  on a domain f : G : G, in case G is of class G (see Def. 1.1. ). We shall also introduce boundary values of such functions on such domains.

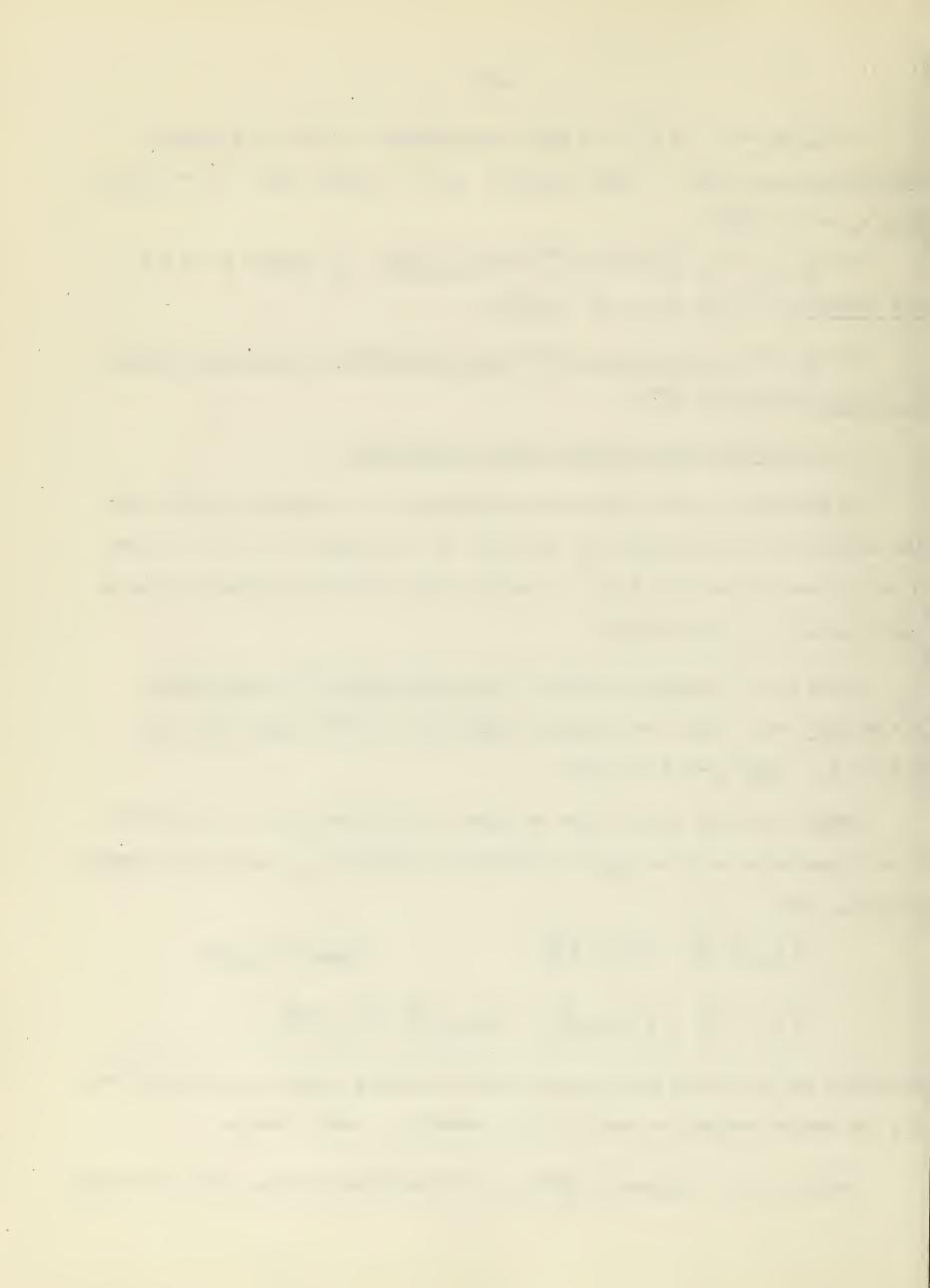
LEMMA 2.4.1: Suppose  $f \in L_p(G)$ , e is a unit vector,  $D \subset G$ , all points x + he with  $x \in D$  and  $0 < h < h_0$  are in G, and  $f_h(x) = f(x + he)$  for x on D and  $0 < h < h_0$ . Then  $f_h \longrightarrow f$  in  $L_p(D)$ .

Proof: The proof is like that of Lemma 2.1.1: Extend f to be zero off of G and approximate to it in  $L_p(E)$  by continuous functions  $f_n$ , each having compact support. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|f_{nh} - f_h\|_p^0 &= \|f_n - f\|_p^0 & \text{(norms in } L_p(E)) \\ \|f_h - f\|_p^0 &\leq \|f_h - f_{nh}\|_p^0 + \|f_{nh} - f_n\|_p^0 + \|f_n - f\|_p^0 ; \end{aligned}$$

the first and last terms may be made < E/3 by choosing a large n and, for that n, the middle term may be made < E/3 by choosing h small enough.

THEOREM 2.4.1: Suppose  $u \in H_p^m(G)$ , G is bounded and of class  $Q^m$ , D is open,



and  $\overline{G} \subset D$ . Then there exist a constant C = C(G,D,m,p) and a function  $U \in H_{pO}^m(D)$  with support interior to D such that  $\|U\|_{pD}^m \leq C\|u\|_{pG}^m$  and U(x) = u(x) for  $x \in G$ .

Proof: There is a partition of unity on  $\overline{G} = G$  G by functions  $\zeta_S$ ,  $1 \le s \le S$ , each of class  $C^m$  on  $\overline{G}$  with support either interior to G or in a boundary neighborhood  $N_S \subset D$ , where  $N_S$  is the image of B(0,1) under a regular transformation  $\gamma_S : x = x_S(y)$  of class  $C^m$  in which  $x_S(0) \bigcirc G$ ,  $\sigma_1$  corresponds to  $G \cap N_S$ , and  $\sigma_1$  corresponds to  $G \cap N_S$  (see  $S \cap S$  1.1 and  $S \cap S$  1.2 and  $S \cap S$  2.3.1.

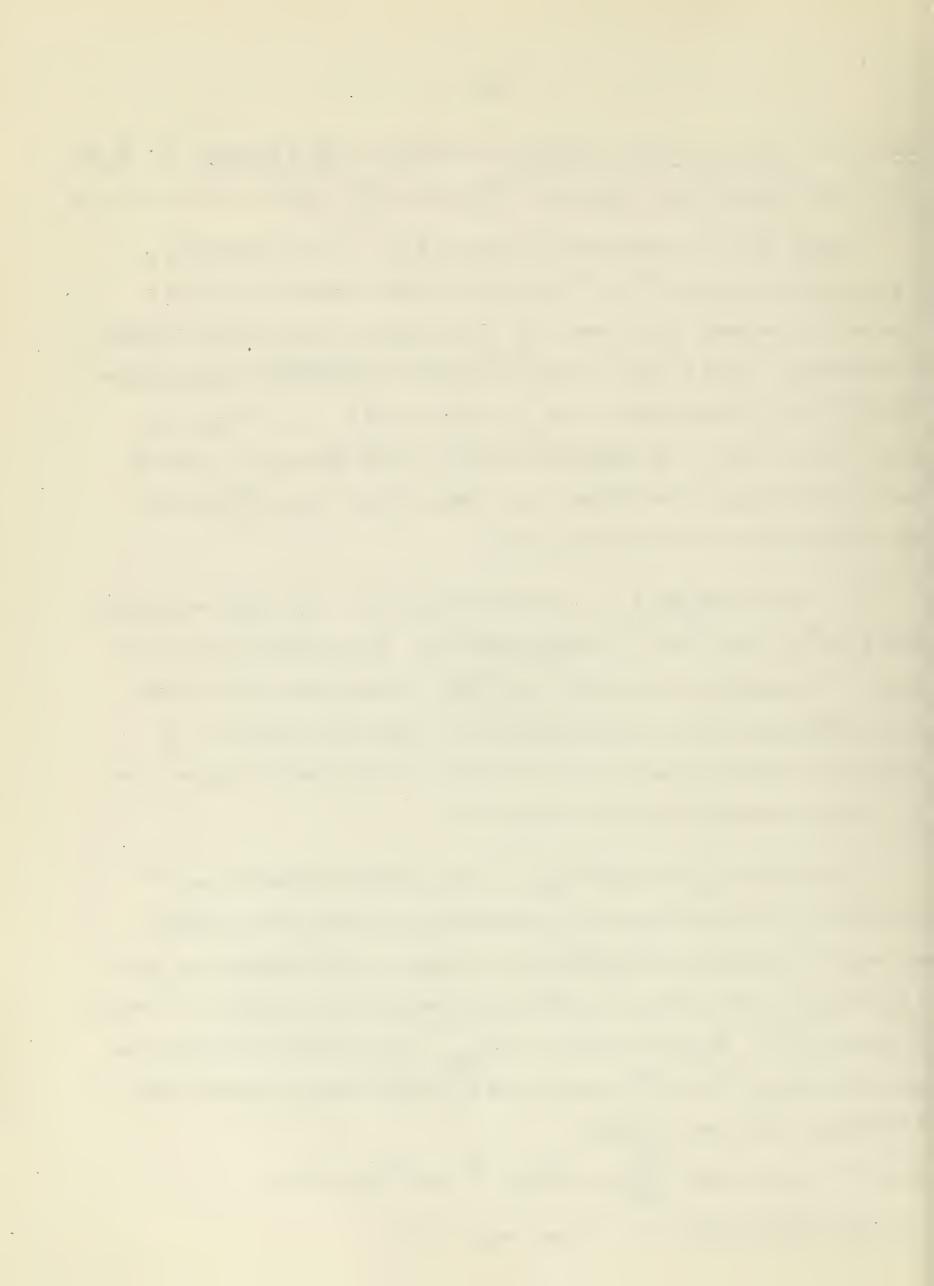
Then  $u = u_1 + \ldots + u_S$  If  $A(\zeta_S) \subset G$ , then  $u_S = 0$  near  $S \cap S$  and it is easy to see by approximating by mollifiers, etc., that each such  $\sigma_S \cap S$  2.3.1.

So, suppose  $\Lambda(\zeta_s) \subset N_s$ , a boundary neighborhood. Let  $v_s(y) = u_s[x_s(y)]$ . Then  $v_s \in H_p^m(G_1)$  and  $v_s(y) = 0$  near  $\partial G_1 \cap \partial B(0,1)$ . If we extend  $v_s(y)$  to be 0 for  $y \ge 0$  outside  $G_1$ , we see that  $v_s \in H_p^m(E_1^+)$ . We shall show how to extend  $v_s(y) = 0$  to  $v_s(y) = 0$  and to vanish near  $\partial B(0,1)$ . Then, if we extend  $v_s(y) = 0$  on  $v_s(y) = 0$  for  $v_s(y) = 0$  for

If we define  $w_n(y) = v(y+n^{-1}e_y)$ , e being the unit vector in the y direction, we see from Theorem 2.1.4 and Lemma 2.4.1 that  $w_n \to v$  in  $H_p^m(E^+)$  and each  $w_n$  vanishes near  $\partial G_1 \cap \partial B(0,1)$ . For each n, the functions  $w_{nq}(y) = v(y+n^{-1}e_y)$  with  $\rho = n^{-1}(q+1)^{-1} \in C_c^\infty(E)$  and converge to  $w_n$  in  $H_p^m(E^+)$  as  $q \to \infty$  by Theorem 2.1.3. So, if we choose  $v_n = w_{n,q_n}$ , for  $q_n$  sufficiently large, we see that each  $v_n \in C^m$  for  $y \to 0$  and  $v_n \to v$  in  $H_p^m(E^+)$  and  $v_n$  vanishes near  $\partial G \cap \partial B(0,1)$ . If, now, we define

(2.4.1) 
$$v_n(y, y, y) = \sum_{p=1}^{m+1} c_p v_n(-py, y, y)$$
 for  $y \neq 0$ , where

<sup>\*)</sup> This device is due to J. L. Lions, see [ ] and



$$\sum_{p=1}^{m+1} (-p)^{q-1} c_p = 1, \quad q = 1, \dots, m+1$$

we see that each  $v_n \in \mathbb{C}^m$  on E,  $\bigwedge(v_n) \subset B(0,1)$ , and that  $\|v_n\|_{pG}^m - \leq C(m, \sqrt{n}) \cdot \|v_n\|_{pG}^m$  independently of n, so that the  $v_n \longrightarrow v$  in  $H_{po}^m$  on B(0,1) where v(y) is defined for  $y \not= 0$  by (2.4.1); here  $G = G_1$  and  $G = B(0,1) - G_1 - \sigma_1$ .

Having extended u to  $\in H_p^m(D)$  and to have support in D, we may approximate to u on  $\overline{G}$  by the mollified functions  $u_p$  .

LTM4A 2.4.2: Suppose  $u \in H_p^m(D)$ ,  $GCD_{2\rho_0}$ ,  $0 < \rho < \rho_0$ , p is a mollifier, and  $u_\rho$  is the p-mollified function of u. Then

$$(2.4.2) || u_{\rho} - u||_{pG}^{m-1} \leq c \rho || u||_{p}^{m}, c = c(\gamma, m, p, \varphi)$$

<u>Proof:</u> By using the functions u, we may approximate u in  $H_p^m(G_{\ref{o}})$  by functions  $C^m(G_{\ref{o}})$ . Hence we may assume that u  $C^m(G_{\ref{o}})$ . Then, let  $v = \sqrt[k]{u}$  for  $0 \le k \le m-1$ . Then

$$|v\rho(x)-v(x)| = |\rho^{-1}\rangle_{B(0,\rho)} \varphi(\rho^{-1}\xi)[\int_0^1 \xi^{\alpha} \sigma_{,\alpha}(x+t\xi)dt]d\xi|$$

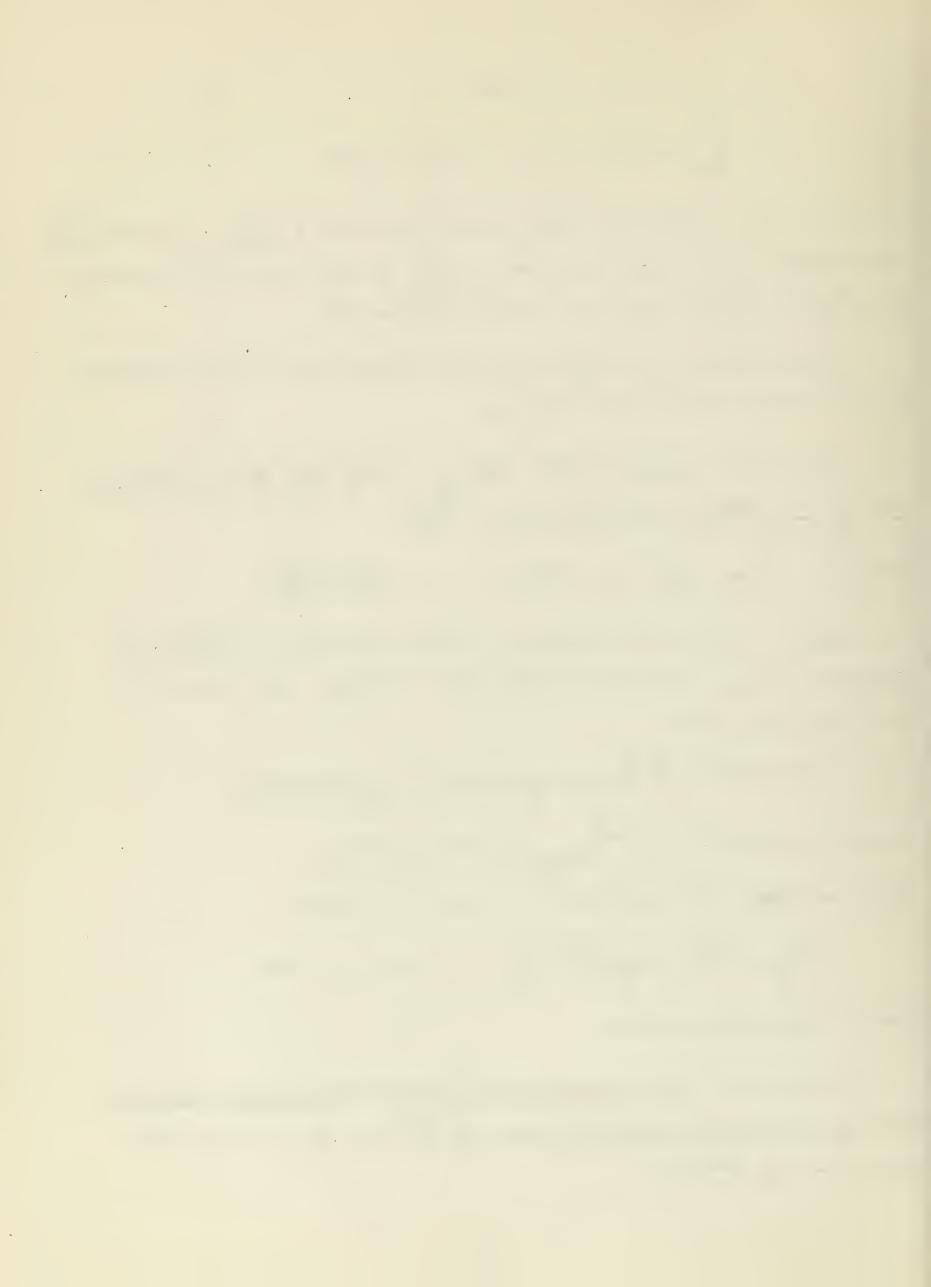
(2.4.3) 
$$|v_{\rho}(x)-v(x)|^p \le K \rho^{p-1} \int_{B(0,\rho)} [\int_0^1 |\nabla v(x+t\xi)|^p dt] d\xi$$

where  $K = K(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{p})$ . By integrating (2.4.3) over G, we obtain

$$\|\nabla^k u - \nabla^k u\|_{pG}^0 \le K \rho \|\nabla^{k+1} u\|_{pD}^0, \quad k = 0, ..., m-1$$

from which the result follows.

THEOREM 2.4.2: If G is bounded and of class  $C^m$ , then bounded subsets of  $H_p^m(G)$  are conditionally compact as subsets of  $H_p^{m-1}(G)$ . If  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ , then  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^{m-1}(G)$ .



Proof: Let  $\{u_n\}$  be a bounded sequence in  $H_p^m(G)$ . Using Theorem 2.4.1, we may extend each  $u_n$  to an open set  $D \supset \overline{G}$  so that the extended sequence is bounded in  $H_p^m(D)$ . Let  $\varphi$  be a mollifier, suppose  $\overline{G} \subseteq D_p$ , and 0 . Then from Lemma 2.4.2, we conclude that

$$\| u_{n\rho} - u_{n} \|_{pG}^{m-1} \leq M \rho$$

First, let us suppose that p > 1. Then a subsequence, still called  $\{u_n\}$ , such that  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m(D)$ . It follows from the formula (2.1.8) for  $u_{n_f}$  and  $u_{n_f}$  and the weak convergence that  $D_{\alpha u_{n_f}}$  converges uniformly to  $D_{\alpha u_{n_f}}$  on  $\overline{G}$ , for  $0 \le |\alpha| \le m-1$ . Then, taking norms on  $H_p^{m-1}(G)$ , we obtain

$$||u_{n}-u|| \leq ||u_{n}-u_{n}|| + ||u_{n}-u_{n}|| + ||u_{n}-u_{n}|| + ||u_{n}-u_{n}||$$

$$\leq 2^{n}\rho + ||u_{n}-u_{n}||$$

using (2.4.4). The result follows easily. If p = 1, all the  $D_{\alpha}u_{n,p}$  are equicontinuous and uniformly bounded so that a subsequence, still called  $\{u_n\}$  exists so that the  $D_{\alpha}u_{n,p}$  converge uniformly to some functions  $\{u_n\}$  for each of a sequence of  $\{u_n\}$ . Since (2.4.4) still holds the sequences  $\{u_n\}$  form a Cauchy sequence in  $L_p(G)$  and so tend to limit functions  $\{u_n\}$  in  $L_p(G)$ . If we set  $u = \{u_n\}$  when  $|u_n| = 0$ , then we see that  $u \in H_p^{m-1}(G)$ ,  $\{u_n\}$  and  $\{u_n\}$  holds for  $u_n$  and  $u_n$ . The result again follows, but now, we do not know that  $u \in H_p^m$ . However, if  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m$ , then this u must be the same as the preceding one.

THEOREM 2.4.3: If G is bounded and of class  $C^m$ , there are bounded linear mappings  $B_{\alpha}$  for  $0 < |\alpha| < m-1$  of  $H_p^m(G)$  into  $L_p$  (a) such that  $B_{\alpha}u$  is the restriction of  $D_{\alpha}u$  to a whenever  $u \in C^m(\overline{G})$ . If  $u_n - u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ , then  $B_{\alpha}u_n \longrightarrow B_{\alpha}u$  in  $L_p(\partial G)$  if  $0 < |\alpha| < m-1$ . If p > 1, the mappings are compact.



Proof In order to prove the first statement, it is sufficient to show that if  $u \in C^m(\overline{G})$ , then

(2.4.6) 
$$\int_{G} |v^{k}u|^{p} dS \leq C(v,m,p,G)(||u||_{p}^{m})^{p}$$
  $0 \leq k \leq m-1$ 

In order to do this, let  $\zeta_1$ , ...,  $\zeta_S$  be a partition of unity as in the proof of Theorem 2.4.1, let  $u_s = \zeta_s u$ , and let  $v_s$  be the transform of  $u_s$  under  $v_s$  whenever the support of  $\zeta_s$  is in a boundary neighborhood. Then  $\|v_s\|_p^m \le C_1 \|u\|_p^m$  and

$$\int_{\mathbf{G}} |\mathbf{y}^{k} \mathbf{u}_{s}|^{p} ds \leq c_{2} \int_{\mathbf{J}=0}^{\frac{k}{2}} |\mathbf{\nabla}^{\mathbf{J}} \mathbf{v}_{s}(0, \mathbf{y}_{i}^{1})|^{p} d\mathbf{y}_{s}^{1} \leq c_{3} \int_{\mathbf{G}_{1}} |\mathbf{\nabla}^{k+1} \mathbf{v}_{s}(\mathbf{y})|^{p} d\mathbf{y}_{s}^{1} \leq c_{4} (\|\mathbf{u}\|_{p}^{m})^{p}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq m-1$$

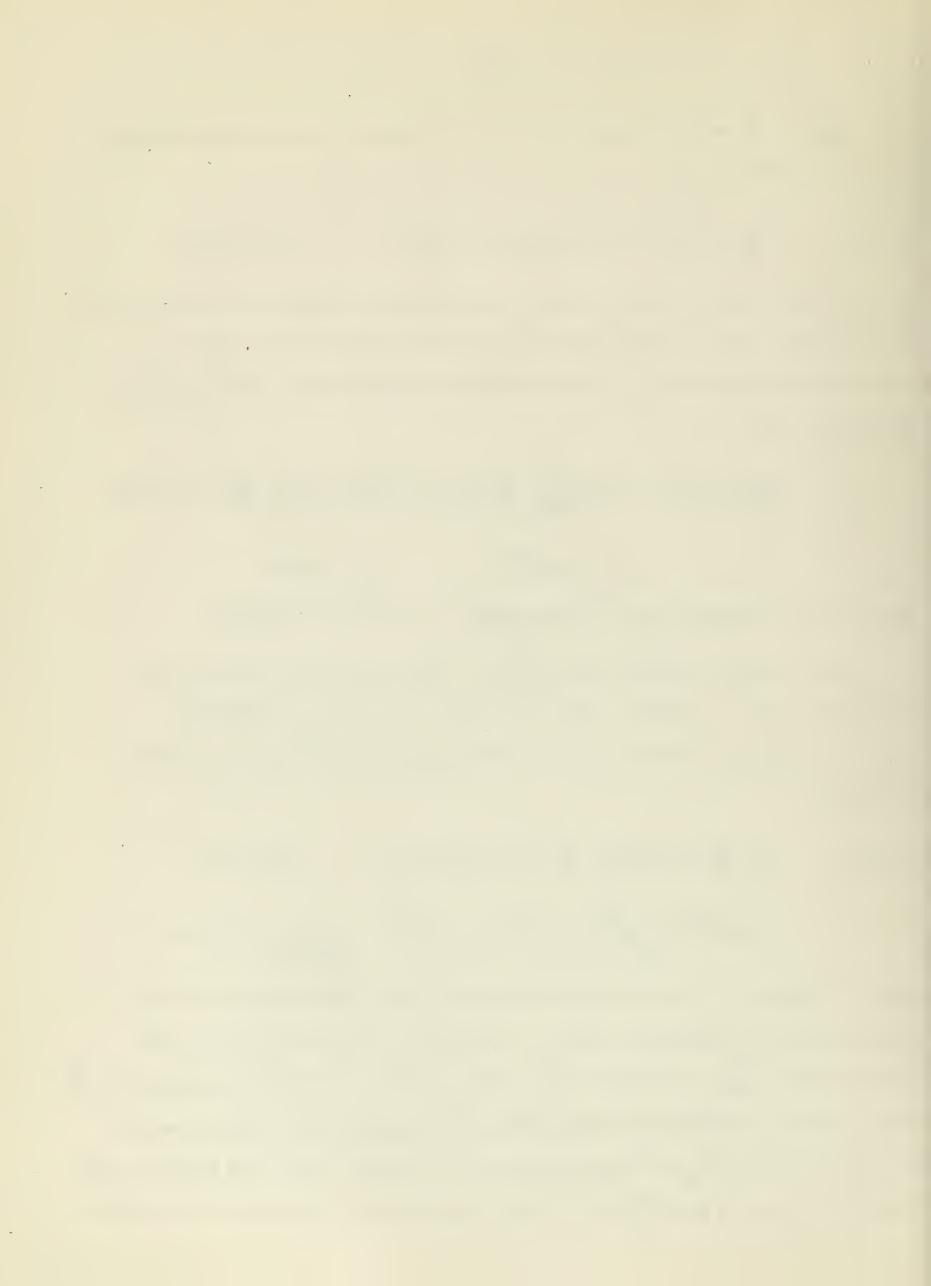
since v<sub>s</sub> vanishes on and near 3G<sub>1</sub>03B<sub>1</sub>. Thus (2.4.6) follows.

Next, suppose that  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ . Using the result above, we may assume that each  $u_n \in C^m(G)$ . Then, for each s,  $u_{ns} \to u_s$  in  $H_p^m(G)$  and  $v_{ns} \to v_s$  in  $H_p^m(G_1)$  (Theorem 2.3.3) so that  $v_{ns} \to v_s$  in  $H_p^{m-1}(G_1)$ . Moreover, we see that

(2.4.7) 
$$\int_{1} |\nabla^{k} v_{ns}(y^{*}, y^{*}_{s}) - \nabla^{k} v_{ns}(0, y^{*}_{s})|^{p} dy , \quad 0 \le k \le m-1$$

$$\le (y^{*})^{p-1} \int_{G_{1}} |\nabla^{k+1} v_{ns}(y)|^{p} dy \le \varepsilon(y^{*}) , \quad \lim_{\rho \to \infty^{+}} \varepsilon(\rho) = 0$$

since in the case p = 1, the weak convergence implies the uniform absolute continuity of the integral of  $|\vec{v}^m v_n|$ . Since  $v_n \to v_s$  in  $H_p^{m-1}(G_1)$ , each vanishing near  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}$ , it follows that  $\nabla^k v_n \to \nabla^k v_s$  in  $L_p(\sigma_1)$  for almost all  $y^{i}$ . Using (2.4.7) it follows that the sequences  $\nabla^k v_n = (0,y^i)$  are Cauchy sequences in  $L_p(\sigma_1)$  so that  $\nabla^k u_n$  are Cauchy sequences in  $L_p(\partial G)$ . Since this holds for any sequence  $u_n \ni u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ , the limit functions being the same, we see that



 $\nabla^k u_n \longrightarrow \nabla^k u$  in  $L_p(\partial G)$  for  $0 \le k \le m-1$ . If p > 1 and  $\{u_n\}$  is any bounded sequence in  $H_p^m(G)$ , a subsequence converges weakly in  $H_p^m(G)$  to some u.

2.5 \_\_amples; continuity; some Sobolev lemmas. As was pointed out in the introduction (\$1.1), the functions in Hpm(G) have been studied from many different points of view by many writers. We shall not go deeply into real variable properties of these functions here but will merely give a few examples to indicate the generality of the functions allowed and then shall prove some Sobolev-type lemmas which will indicate when such functions are continuous or have several continuous derivatives.

It is easy to verify that the function f defined by (2.5.1)  $f(x) = |x|^{-h} \in H_p^m$  on B(0,1) iff  $(h+m) \cdot p < v$ .

From this, it can easily be shown that any function f defined by

$$f(x) = \int_{G} |x-\xi|^{-h} d\mu(e_{\xi})$$
, (h+m)•p <  $\sqrt{2}$ ,

where G is bounded and  $\mu$  is a finite measure on G,  $\{H_p^m\}$  on any bounded domain D. (2.5.1) shows also that, for a given m and p, the wildness of functions of class  $H_p^m$  increases with the dimension  $\gamma$ . We now prove a Sobolev-type lemma guaranteeing continuity.

THEOREM 2.5.1: Suppose  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  where G is bounded and of class  $C^m$  or is convex and  $m > \sqrt{p}$ . Then u is continuous on G and there is a constant  $C(\sqrt{n}, p, G)$  such that

$$(2.5.2) |u(x)| \le C \cdot |G|^{-1/p} \left\{ \frac{m-1}{j} \frac{\Delta^{j}}{j!} \| \mathbf{v}^{j} \mathbf{u} \|_{p}^{o} + (m-\sqrt{p})^{-1} \frac{\Delta^{m}}{(m-1)!} \| \mathbf{v}^{m} \mathbf{u} \|_{p}^{o} \right\}.$$

If G is convex, we may take C = 1; u may be a vector function.



<u>Proof:</u> If G is of class  $C^m$ , u may be extended to  $E.H_{po}^m(D)$  where D is a given open set  $\supset G$  with  $\|u\|_{pD}^m \le C_1(v)$ , m,p,G,D)  $\|u\|_{pG}^m$  and then may be extended to be O outside D. So, by allowing a factor C, we may replace G by its convex cover. Since u may be approximated in  $H_p^m(G\rho)$  by functions  $\xi$   $C^m$ , for each  $\rho > 0$ , we may assume  $G = G\rho$  and  $u \notin C^m(G)$  and then let  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$  in (2.5.2).

By expanding in a Taylor series with remainder about each y in G and then integrating with respect to y over G, we obtain (for notation, see  $\S$ 

$$|G| \cdot u(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} (j!)^{-1} (-1)^{j} \int_{G} \nabla^{j} u(y) \cdot (y-x)^{j} dy$$

$$+ \int_{0}^{1} (-1)^{m} [(m-1)!]^{-1} t^{m-1} [\int_{G} \nabla^{m} u[x+t(y-x)] \cdot (y-x)^{m} dy] dt$$

The inequality follows by applying the Hölder inequality to each term, first setting z = x + t(y-x) to handle the last integral; when this is done the last integral is dominated by

$$[\Delta^{m}/(m-1)] \cdot \int_{0}^{1} t^{m-1-v} [\int_{G(x,t)} |\nabla^{m}u(z)| dz] dt,$$

where G(x,t) consists of all z=x+t(y-x) for  $y \in G$  and  $|G(x,t)| = t^{\gamma}|G|$ .

This shows, for example, that if  $u \in H^1_p(G)$  with p > V, then u is continuous. We now present a "Dirichlet growth" theorem guaranteeing continuity (cf[ ]):

THEOREM 2.5.2: Suppose 
$$u \in H_p^1[B(x_0,R)]$$
,  $1 \le p \le \sqrt{n}$ , and suppose

(2.5.4) 
$$\int_{B(x,r)} |u|^p dx \le L^p (r/\delta)^{v-p+p\mu}$$
,  $0 \le r \le \delta = R-|x-x_0|$ ,  $0 \le \mu \le 1$ 

for every 
$$x \in B(x_0, R)$$
. Then  $u \in C_{\mu}^{0}[B(x_0, r)]$  for each  $r < R$  and

(2.5.5) 
$$|u(\xi)-u(x)| \leq CL\delta^{1-\frac{1}{2}p}(|\xi-x|/\delta)^{\mu}$$
 for  $|\xi-x| \leq \delta/2$ ,  $C = C(\sqrt{p},\mu)$ .



Proof: By approximations, we may assume  $u \in C^1(B_R)$ . Let x and  $\xi$  be given, let  $\rho = |\xi - x|/2$ , and  $\bar{x} = (\xi + x)/2$ . For each  $\eta \in B(\bar{x}, \rho)$ , we observe that

$$u(\eta) = u(\xi) = (\eta^{\alpha} - \xi^{\alpha}) \int_{0}^{1} u_{\alpha} [\xi + t(\eta - \xi)] dt$$

$$|u(\eta) - u(\xi)| \le 2\rho \int_{0}^{1} |\nabla u[\xi + t(\eta - \xi)] |dt$$

Averaging over  $P(\bar{x}, \rho)$ , we obtain

$$(2.5.6) \qquad |B(\overline{x},\rho)|^{-1} \int_{B(\overline{x},\rho)} |u(\eta)-u(\xi)| d\eta \leq 2\rho |B(\overline{x},\rho)|^{-1} \int_{B(\overline{x},\rho)} |\int_{0}^{1} |u(\xi+t(\eta-\xi))| dt d\eta$$

Interchanging the order of integration, setting  $y = \xi + t(\gamma - \xi)$  and noting that y ranges over  $B(\bar{x}_t, t\rho)$  where  $\bar{x}_t = (1-t)\xi + t\bar{x}$  which is at a distance  $\delta_t \ge \delta - 2\rho + t\rho \ge \delta/2$  and using (2.5.4) and the Hölder inequality to obtain

(2.5.7) 
$$\int_{B(\bar{x}_{t}, t\rho)} |\nabla u(y)| dy \le C_{1}L(\delta/2)^{1-\mu-\nu/p}(t\rho)^{\nu-1+\mu}$$
,  $C_{1} = C(\nu, p)$ 

we see that the right side of (2.5.6)

$$(2.5.8) \leq 2C_2 \rho^{1-1/2} L(\delta/2)^{1-\mu-1/p} \rho^{1-\mu/2} t^{\mu-1} d\mu , \quad C_2 = C_2(\sqrt{p})$$

Using the same result for the average of  $|u(\hat{\gamma}) - u(x)|$ , we obtain the result.

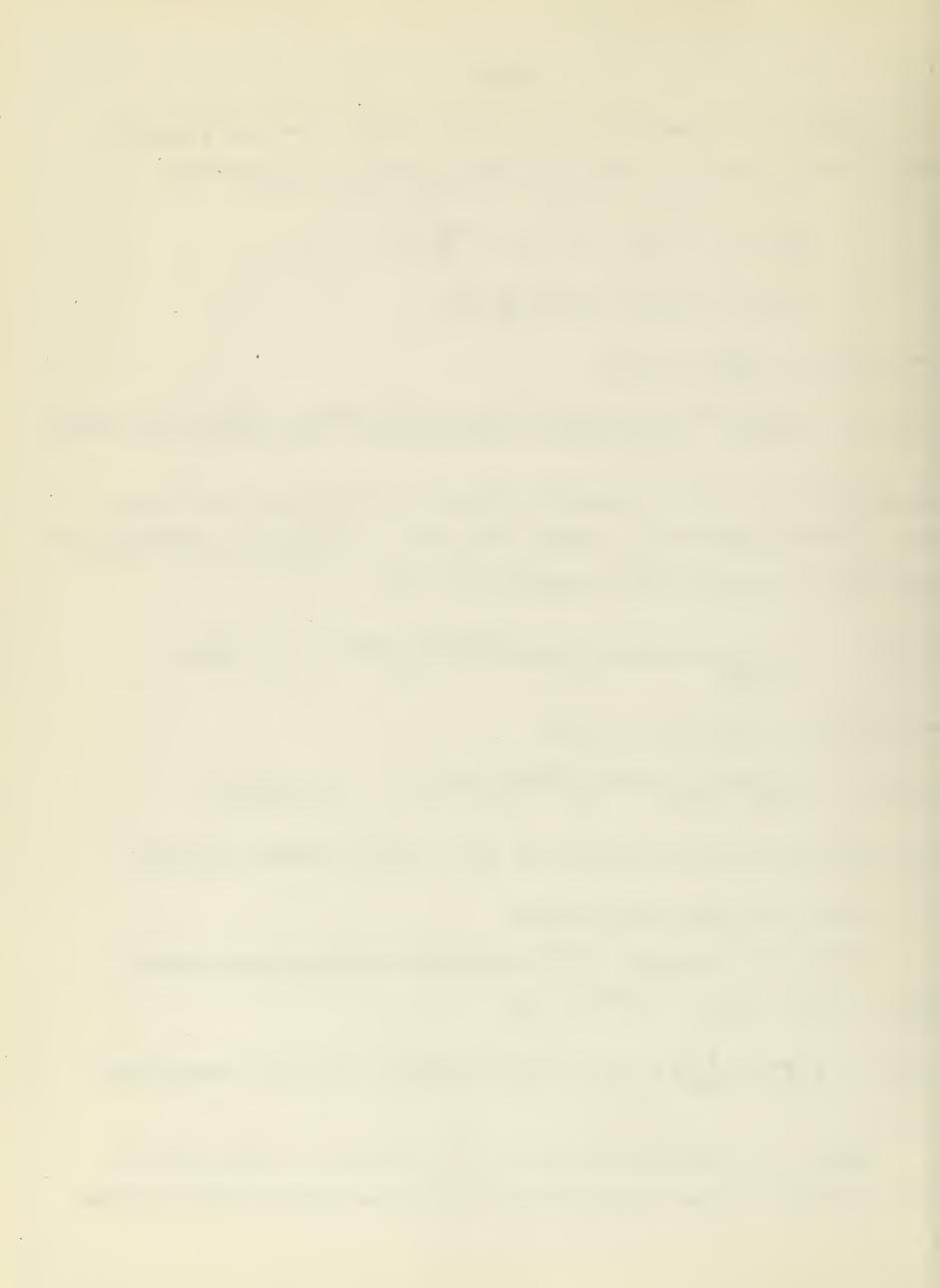
We now prove another Sobolev Lemma:

THEOREM 2.5.3: Suppose  $u \in H_p^1(E_{\gamma})$  with  $1 < \gamma$ , and has compact support.

Then  $u \in L_r(E_{\gamma})$ , where  $r = \sqrt{p}/(\sqrt{-p})$ , and

$$(2.5.9) \|u\|_{r}^{2} \le t \frac{1}{u} (\|u_{a}\|_{p}^{0})^{1/2} \le \sqrt{1/2} t \|\nabla u\|_{p}^{0}, 1 \le p < \sqrt{1/2}, t = p(\sqrt{-1})/(\sqrt{-p})$$

<u>Proof</u>: It is sufficient to prove this for  $u \in C_c^1(E_p)$ . The case where p>l can be proved by applying the inequality (2.5.9) for p=l to the function v defined



by

$$\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})|^{\mathbf{t}}$$

Ter, if this is done, we obtain

$$(2.5.10) \int |u(x)|^{r} dx = \int |v(x)|^{s} dx \leq \frac{1}{|u|} (||v|_{a}||_{1}^{o})^{s/v}$$

$$\leq v^{s} (||u||_{r}^{o})^{rs} (p-1)/p \frac{v}{|u|} (||u|_{a}||_{p}^{o})^{s/v}, (s=v)/(v-1))$$

since  $r = \mu(t-1)/(p-1)$ . The first result in (2.5.9) follows easily since

$$r - [rs(p-1)/p] = s$$

and the second result follows from an elementary inequality.

We small prove the inequality for p=1 and 0=3; the proof for 1=2 or 1>3 is similar. Clearly

$$|u(x,y,z)| \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,1}(\xi,y,z)| d\xi, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,2}(x,\eta,z,)| d\eta, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,3}(x,y,\zeta)| d\zeta$$

Thus

$$|u(x,y,z)|^{3/2} \le (\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,1}(\xi,y,z)| d\xi)^{1/2} (\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,2}(x,y,z)| d\eta)^{1/2}$$

$$(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |u_{,3}(x,y,\zeta)| d\zeta)^{1/2}$$

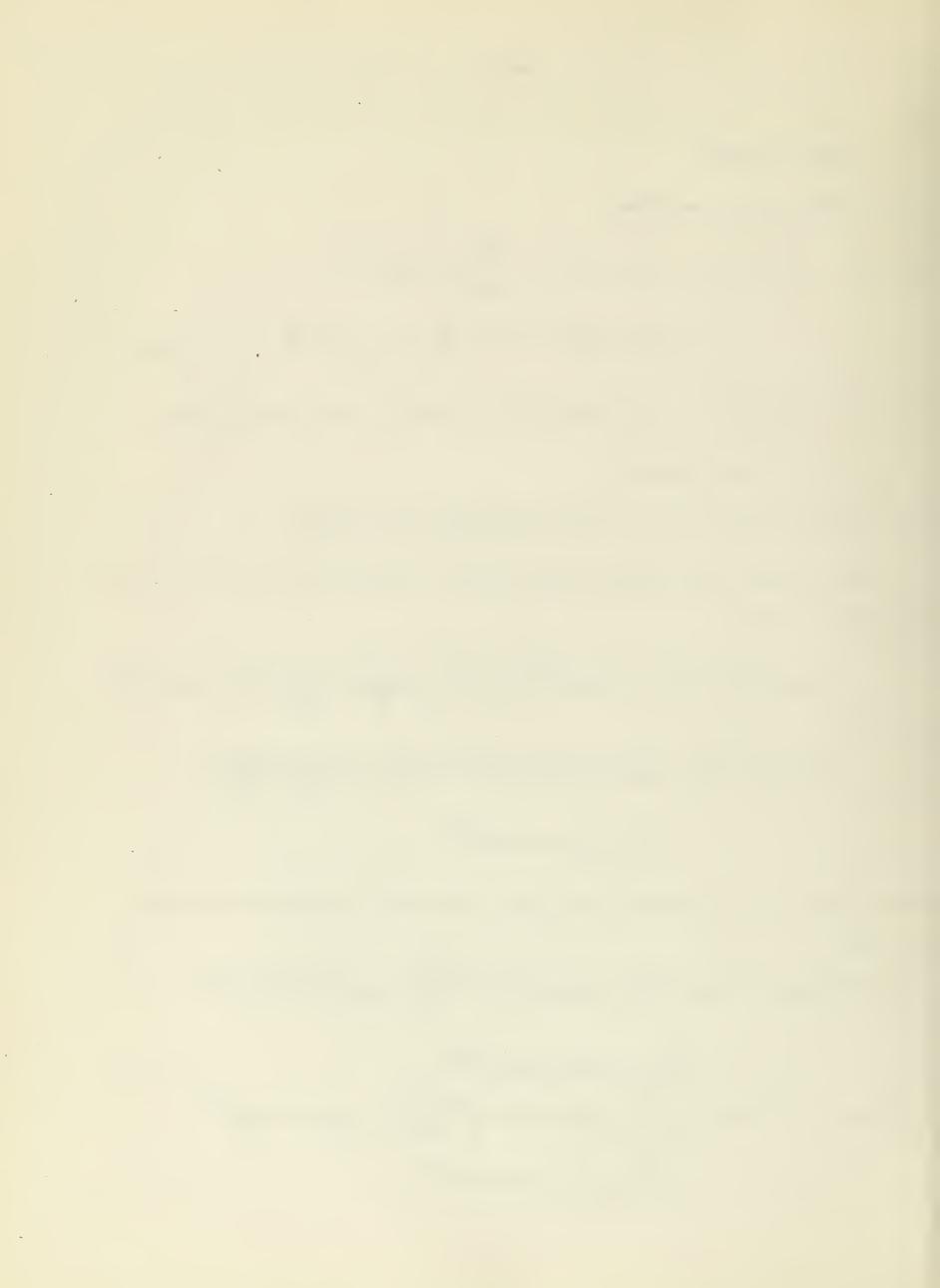
Integrating first with respect to x then y, and using the Schwarz inequality, we obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})|^{3/2} d\mathbf{x} \leq \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\xi,\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})| d\xi\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{2}(\mathbf{x},\eta,\mathbf{z})| d\mathbf{x} d\eta\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})|^{3/2} d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} \leq \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\xi,\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})| d\xi d\mathbf{y}\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{2}(\mathbf{x},\eta,\mathbf{z})| d\mathbf{x} d\eta\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})|^{3/2} d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} \leq \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\xi,\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})| d\xi d\mathbf{y}\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{2}(\mathbf{x},\eta,\mathbf{z})| d\mathbf{x} d\eta\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})|^{3/2} d\mathbf{x} d\mathbf{y} \leq \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\xi,\mathbf{y},\mathbf{z})| d\xi d\mathbf{y}\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\mathbf{u}_{1}(\mathbf{z},\eta,\mathbf{z})| d\mathbf{x} d\eta\right)^{1/2}$$



from which the result follows by integrating with respect to z.

THEOREM 2.5.4: There is a constant  $C(\cdot)$  such that if  $u \in H_2^1[B(x_0,R)]$ , there exists a function  $U \in H_{20}^1[B(x_0,2R)]$  such that U(x) = u(x) for  $x \in B(x_0,R)$  and

$$\|\nabla u\|_{2,2R}^{0} \le C \cdot \|u\|_{2,R}^{1}$$
, where  $\|u\|_{2,R}^{1}$  =  $\int_{B_{R}} (|\nabla u|^{2} + R^{-2}u^{2}) dx$ 

Proof: From considerations of homogeneity, it follows that it is sufficient to prove this for the unit sphere B(0,1). But then the result follows from Theorem 2.4.1.

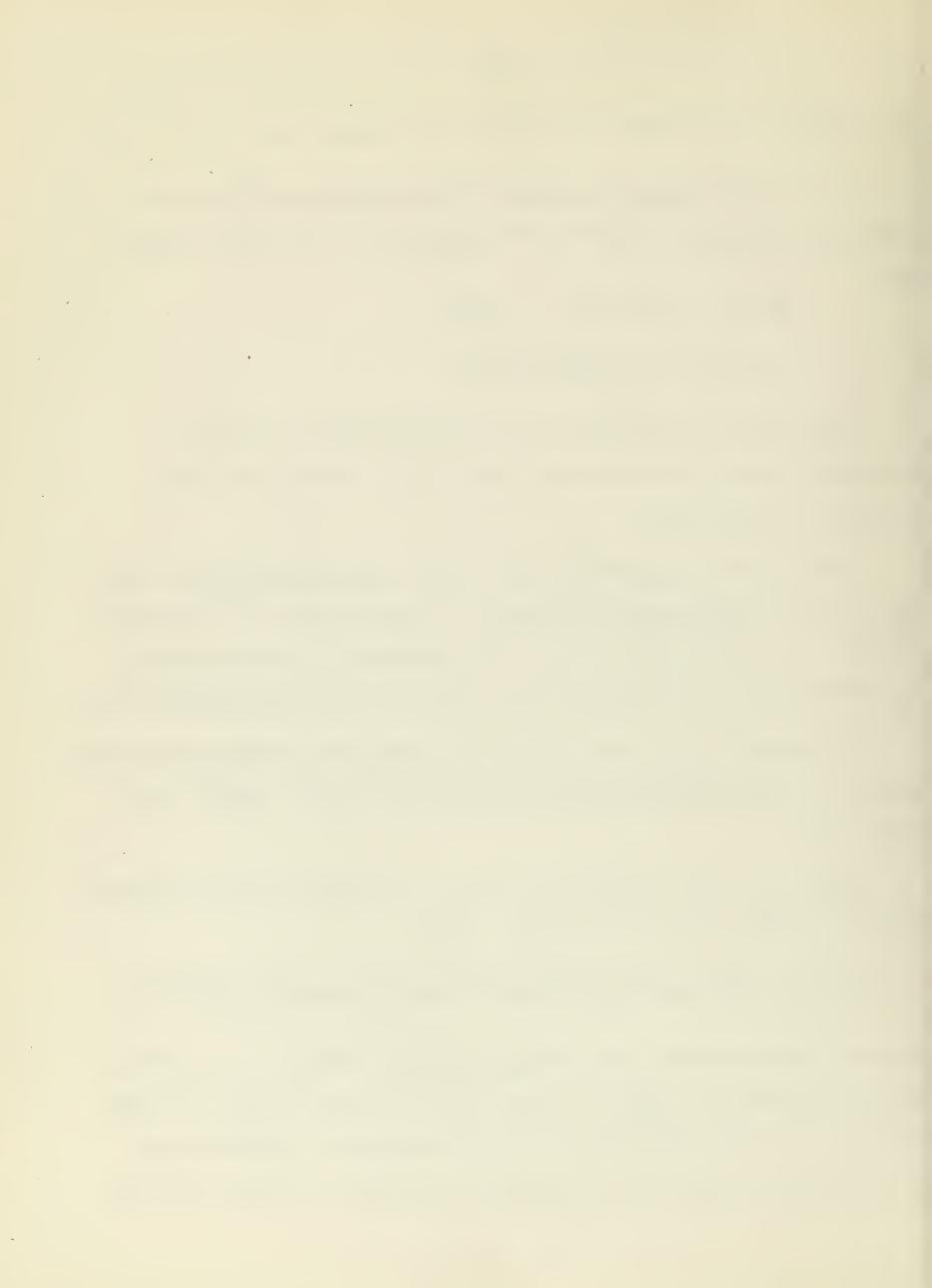
THEOREM 2.5.5: (a) If  $u \in H_p^1(D)$ , p > 1, then u has a representative u such that  $u(x^\alpha, x_\alpha)$  is absolutely continuous in  $x^\alpha$  on any segment  $[a^\alpha, b^\alpha]$  such that  $(x^\alpha, x_\alpha) \in D$  for  $a^\alpha < x^\alpha < b^\alpha$ ,  $\alpha = 1, \dots, \gamma$ . Moreover, its partial derivative u, u, u, which exists almost everywhere and is measurable) is a representative of u, u, u.

(b) Suppose  $u \in L_p(D)$ , p > 1, suppose u has the absolute continuity properties of part (a), and suppose its partial derivatives u,  $a \in L_p(D)$ . There u is of class  $H_p^1(D)$ .

Proof: (a) Let R = [a,b] be any cell in D in which a and b are rational. Suppose  $u_n \in C^1(\overline{\mathbb{R}})$  and  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $H^1_p(\mathbb{R})$ . Define

$$\psi_n(x_1^i) = \int_a^b^1 [|u_n(x_1^i, x_1^i) - u(x_1^i, x_1^i)|^2 + |\nabla u_n(x_1^i, x_1^i) - \nabla u(x_1^i, x_1^i)|^2]^{p/2} dx^i$$

wherever this makes sense. Then each  $\psi_n \in L_1([a_1,b_1])$  and  $\varphi_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_1$  there. Thus, a subsequence of the  $\varphi_n$  converges to zero for almost all  $x_1$ . For any such  $x_1$ , it is clear that the  $u_n(x^1,x_1)$  are uniformly A.C. and hence equicontinuous and converge to an AC limit which we denote by  $U^1(x^1,x_1^1)$  which must



be equivalent to  $u(x^1,x_1^3)$  and have partial derivative  $u_1^1$  equivalent to  $u_1$ . Ey taking successive subsequences for  $\alpha=2,\ldots, V$  in turn, we arrive at a function  $u_1^2$  having the desired properties on R. But since the totality of rational cells is denumerable, it follows that these functions  $u_1^2$  all coincide almost everywhere with a  $u_1^2$  as desired. The proof of (b) is trivial and is left to the student.

## EXERCISE

Prove Theorem 2.5.5(b).

2.6. L<sub>2</sub> properties of potentials and quasi-potentials. In this section, we consider quasi-potentials u defined by

(2.6.1) 
$$u(x) = -\int_{G} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)e^{\alpha}(\xi)d\xi$$

and potentials as defined in § 1.4. If the vector  $e \in C_c^{1+\mu}(G)$ , then  $\Lambda(e) \subset B_R = B(x_0,R)$  for some  $x_0$  and R; we may take  $x_0=0$ . Then we may replace G by  $B_R$  in (2.5.1) and we obtain

(2.6.2) 
$$u(x) = -\int_G K_o(x-\xi)e^{\alpha}_{,\alpha}(\xi)d\xi$$
,

by integrating by parts. Then u c C2+4 everywhere and

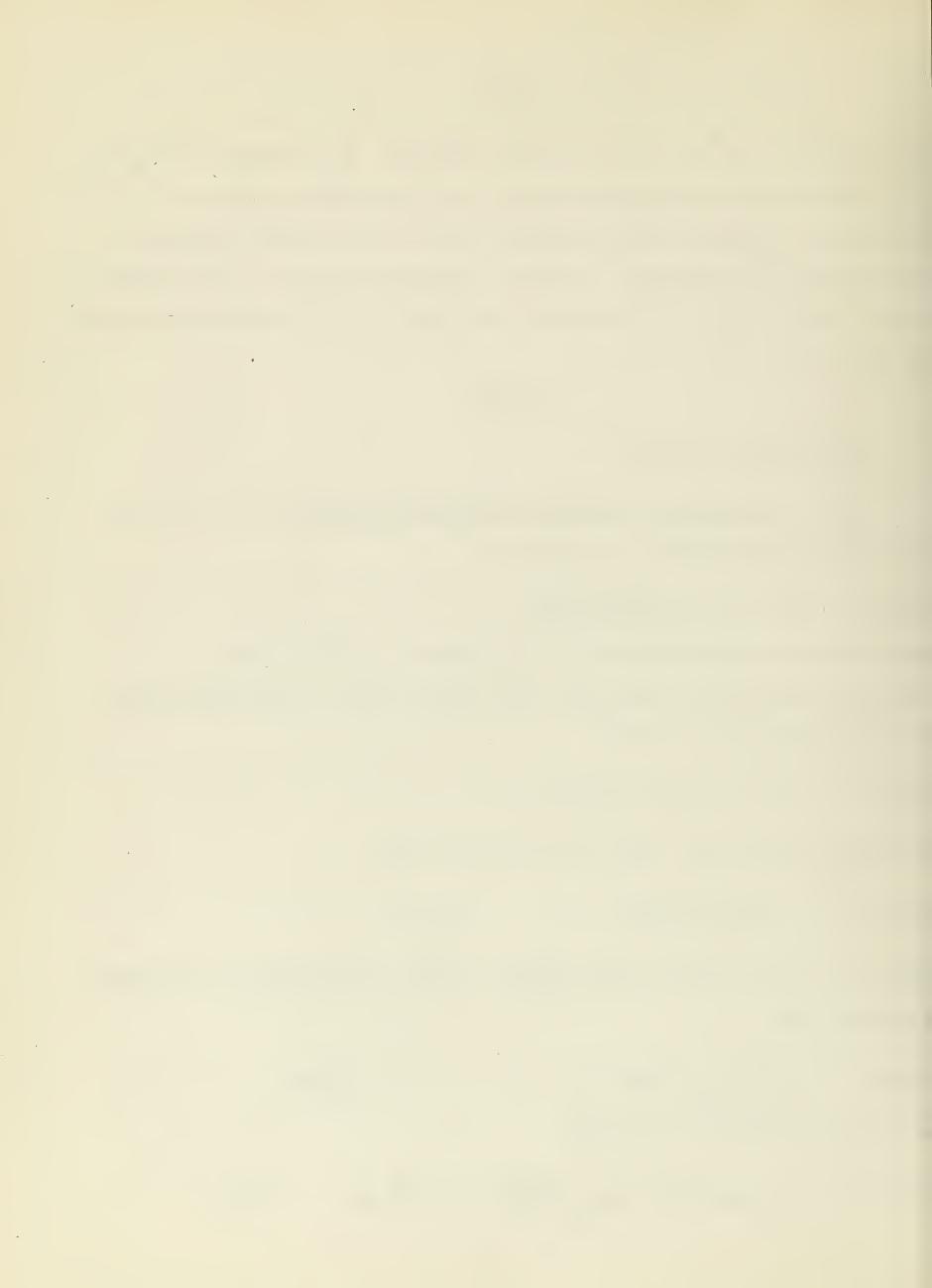
(2.6.3) 
$$-\Delta u(x) = e^{\alpha}_{,\alpha}(x)$$
 ,  $x \in E_{\gamma}$ .

Thus, if D is any open set and  $v \in H_2^1(D)$ , we see by approximations to v by smooth functions that

(2.6.4) 
$$\int_{D} \overline{v}_{c}(u_{a} + e^{a}) dx = 0$$
,  $v \in H_{20}^{1}(D)$ .

Moreover, from (2.6.3), we see that

(2.6.5) 
$$\int_{B_{A}} |\nabla u(x)|^{2} dx = + \int_{\partial B_{A}} \overline{u} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} dS - \int_{G} e^{\alpha} \overline{u}_{,\alpha} dx , \quad G \subset B_{A}$$



From the formula (2.6.1), we see that  $\bar{\mathbf{u}} = O(A^{1-1})$ ,  $\partial \mathbf{u}/\partial \mathbf{r} = O(A^{-1})$ , so that we may let  $A \longrightarrow \infty$  in (2.6.5) and conclude that  $\nabla \mathbf{u} \in L_2(\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{v}})$  and that

$$||2.6.6\rangle$$
  $||\nabla u||_2^0 \le ||e||_2^0$ 

LEMMA 2.6.1: If S is any bounded set and  $0 < h < \sqrt{3}$ ,

$$\int_{V}^{-1} \int_{S} |x|^{-h} dx \leq (\gamma'-h)^{-1} r^{\gamma'-h} , \quad \text{where } \gamma_{\nu} r^{\gamma'} = |S|$$

Proof: For the integral on the left is not decreased if S is replaced by B(0,r) which has the same measure.

THEOREM 2.6.1: Suppose G is bounded, e &  $L_2(G)$ , and u is defined by (2.6.1) whenever this makes sense. Then u &  $H_2^1(D)$  and satisfies (2.6.4) for any bounded open set D. Finally  $\nabla u \in L_2(E_1)$  and (2.6.6) holds. If D = G =  $B_R$ , then

$$||u||_2^3 \leq R ||e||_2^0$$

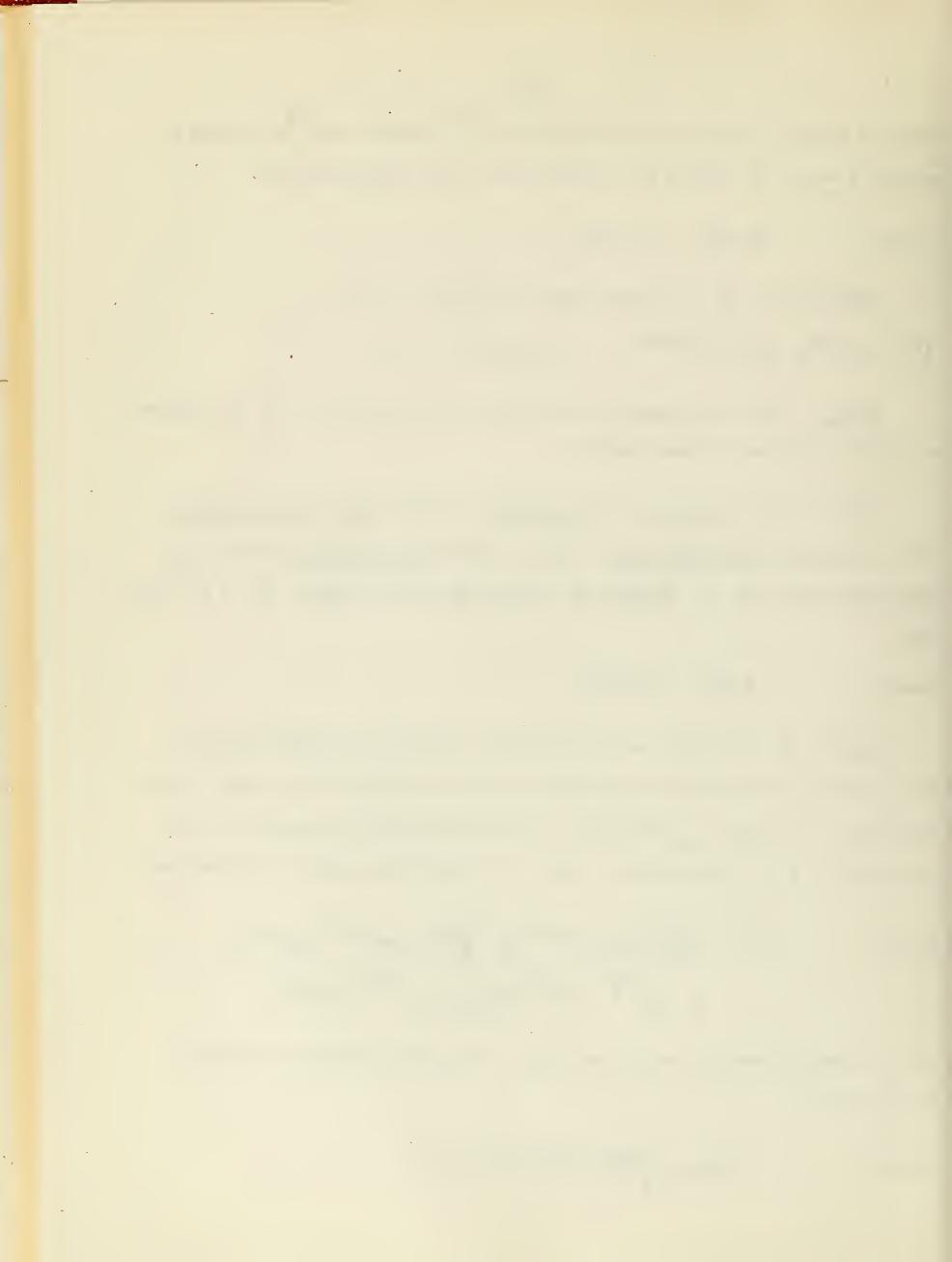
Proof: If  $e \in L_2(G)$ , and D is bounded, we see that  $|\xi-x|^{1-V} \cdot |e(\xi)|^2$  is 2V dimensionally summable over DxG and so it is summable in  $\xi$  over G for almost all x. Since  $K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)e^{\alpha}(\xi)$  is 2V-dimensionally measurable, it is measurable in  $\xi$  for almost all x. Thus, for almost all x, u(x) is defined and

$$|u(x)|^{2} \leq \left\{ \left[ \int_{0}^{-1} \int_{G} |\xi - x|^{1-\nu} d\xi \right] \cdot \left\{ \left[ \int_{0}^{-1} \int_{G} |\xi - x|^{1-\nu} |e(\xi)|^{2} d\xi \right] \right\}$$

$$\leq \gamma_{0}^{-1/\nu} \cdot |G|^{1/\nu} \cdot |G|^{1/\nu} \cdot |G|^{1-\nu} \int_{G} |\xi - x|^{1-\nu} \cdot |e(\xi)|^{2} d\xi$$

by the Schwarz Inequality and Lemma 2.6.1. Integrating (2.6.8) we see that  $u \leq L_2(D)$  and

$$\|u\|_{2D}^{0} \leq \gamma_{\bullet}^{-1/4} |g|^{1/2} \|D|^{1/2} \|e\|_{2}^{0}$$



(2.6.7) follows from (2.6.9) if D = G = B<sub>R</sub>

Now, we may approximate to any e  $\in$  L<sub>2</sub>(G) by a sequence e<sub>n</sub>, each  $\in$  C<sup>1+µ</sup><sub>c</sub>(G). Let u<sub>n</sub> be the corresponding quasi-potential and let D be any bounded domain. Then, from (2.6.8), we see that u<sub>n</sub>  $\longrightarrow$  u in L<sub>2</sub>(D) and, from (2.6.6) for each n, the  $\nabla$  u<sub>n</sub> form a Cauchy sequence in L<sub>2</sub>(D). It follows that u  $\in$  H<sup>1</sup><sub>2</sub>(D) and that  $\nabla$  u<sub>n</sub>  $\longrightarrow$   $\nabla$  u in L<sub>2</sub>. Thus, we may pass to the limit in (2.6.4).

THEOREM 2.6.2: If G and D are bounded,  $f \succeq L_2(G)$ , and u is its potential as defined by

$$(2.6.10)$$
  $u(x) = \int_G K_0(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$  5

then  $u \in H_2^2(D)$  and

(2.6.11) 
$$+\Delta u(x) = f(x)$$
,  $u_{\alpha}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{G}} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi) f(\xi) d\xi$ 

almost everywhere. If G = D=BR, then

$$||\nabla u||_{2}^{o} \leq R ||f||_{2}^{o}, ||\nabla u||_{2}^{o} \leq ||f||_{2}^{o},$$

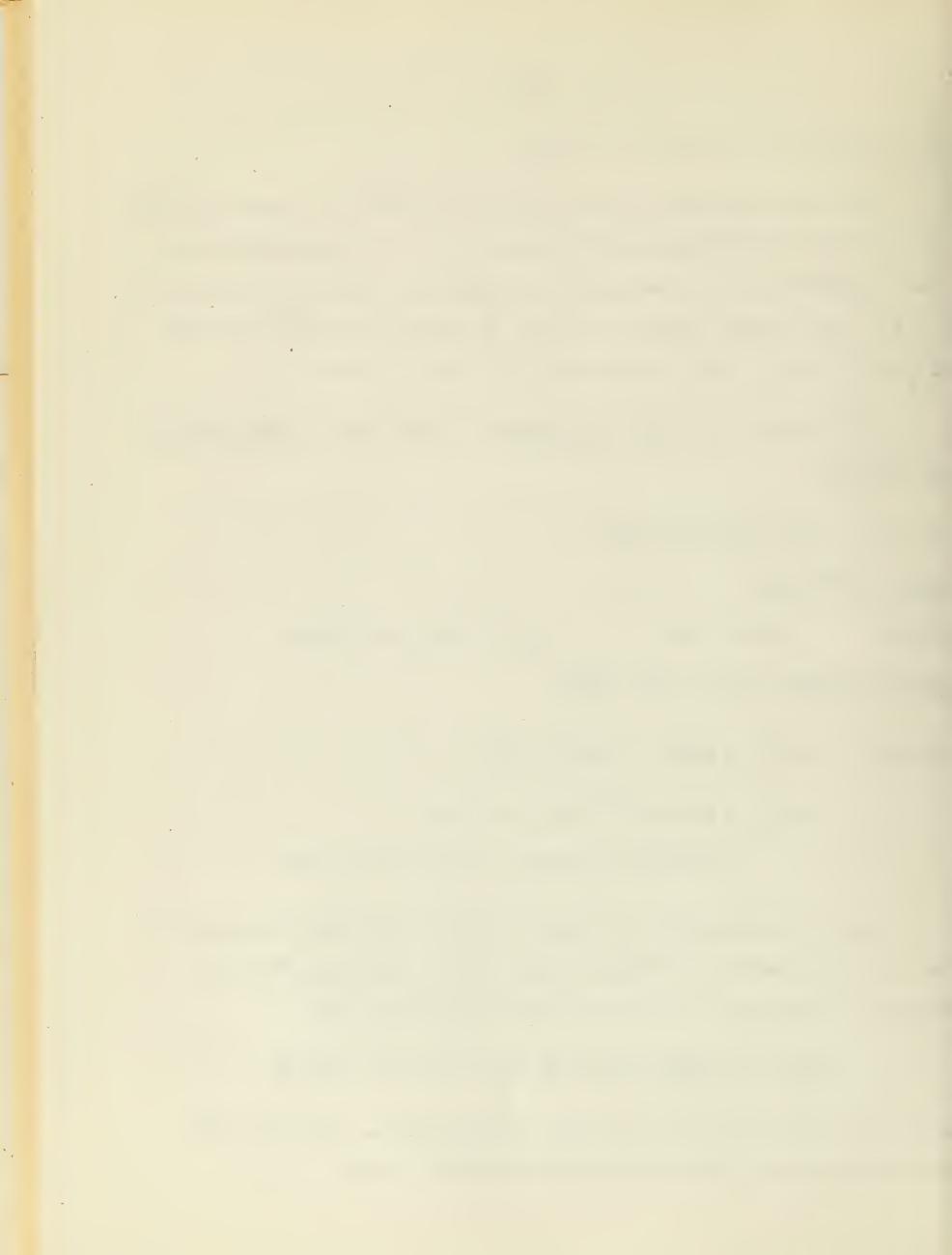
$$||u||_{2}^{o} \leq 2^{-1}(\sqrt{-2})^{-1}R^{2}||f||_{2}^{o} \text{ if } \sqrt{>2}$$

$$\leq 2^{-1}R^{2}(2^{-1}\log R) ||f||_{2}^{o} \text{ if } \sqrt{=2 \text{ and } R \leq 1/2}.$$

Proof: By preceeding as in (2.6.8), it is easy to verify the bounds for u. For smooth functions f, (2.6.11) holds. For such functions, we see by treating the right side of the second formula in (2.6.11), that

$$|vu(x)| \leq \int_{G} |vK_{o}(x-\xi)| f(\xi) |d\xi = \int_{0}^{-1} \int_{G} |\xi-x|^{1-\nu} |f(\xi)| d\xi$$

and we can obtain the bound (2.6.9) with u replaced by  $\nabla$  u. Since the right sides converge in  $L_2$ , the second formula in (2.6.11) holds.



If 
$$f \in C_{\mathbf{c}}^{1+\mu}(G)$$
, then 
$$+\Delta u(x) = f(x), \qquad +\Delta u'_{\alpha}(x) = f_{\alpha}(x)$$

Multiplying through by u, and summing and integrating, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial r} dS + \int_{B_A} \overline{u}_{,\alpha} dx = -\int_{B_A} \overline{u}_{,\alpha} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} dS + \int_{B_A} |\nabla^2 u|^2 dx$$

$$= -\int_{B_A} \overline{u}_{,\alpha} f_{,\alpha} dx = -\int_{B_A} f \Delta \overline{u} dx = \int_{G} |f|^2 dx$$

By letting A  $\longrightarrow$   $\infty$ , we see that  $\|\mathbf{v}^2\mathbf{u}\|_{2E}^0 \le \|\mathbf{f}\|_{2G}^0$ . The remaining results follow easily by approximations.

COROLIARY: If  $e \in H_{2o}^1(G)$ ,  $G \subset B(x_o, R)$ , and u is its quasi-potential, then u is the potential of  $e^{\alpha}$ , and

$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{2}^{o} \leq \mathbf{R} \| \mathbf{e} \|_{2}^{o} \leq 2^{-1/2} \mathbf{R}^{2} \| \mathbf{v} \mathbf{e} \|_{2}^{o} , \| \mathbf{v} \mathbf{u} \|_{2}^{o} \leq 2^{-1/2} \mathbf{R} \| \mathbf{v} \mathbf{e} \|_{2}^{o} ,$$

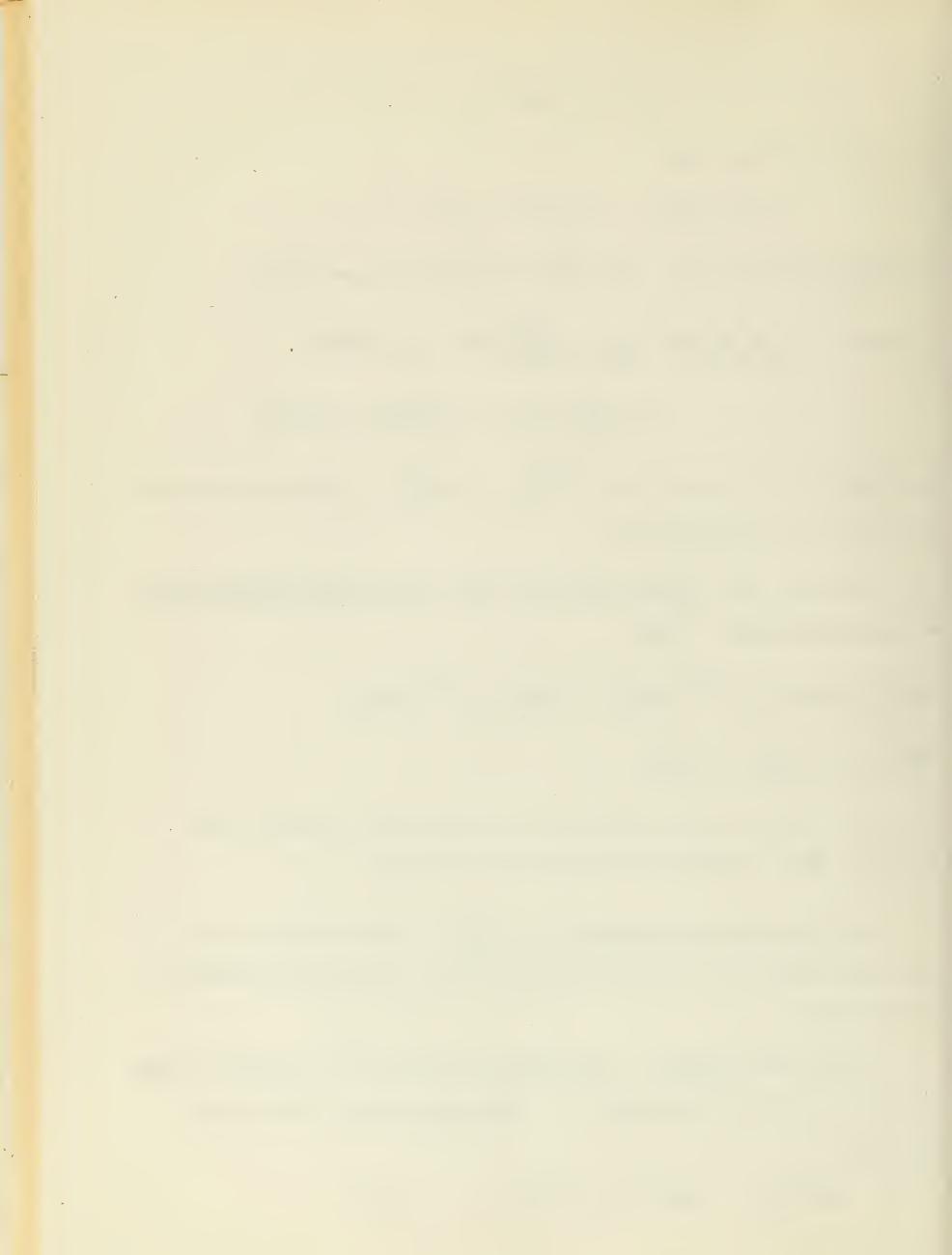
$$\| \mathbf{v}^{2} \mathbf{u} \|_{2}^{o} \leq \| \mathbf{e}_{,\alpha}^{\alpha} \|_{2}^{o} \leq \| \mathbf{v} \mathbf{e} \|_{2}^{o} ,$$

The results follow from the theorems above and Poincaré's inequality; that  $\|e^{\alpha}\|_{2}^{0} \leq \|e\|_{2}^{0}$  follows by taking Fourier transforms.

2.7. <u>Miscellaneous additional inequalities</u>. In this section we prove additional inequalities which are especially useful in discussing equations of higher order.

THEOREM 2.7.1: Suppose G is bounded and of class  $C^m$ , m>1 and p>1. Then, for each j, 1 < j < m-1, and each  $\xi$  > 0, there is a constant  $C(\iota^j, m, p, G, j, \epsilon)$  such that

$$(2.7.1) \quad \|\nabla^{j}u\|_{p}^{o} \leq \varepsilon \|\nabla^{m}u\|_{p}^{o} + C\|u\|_{p}^{o}, \quad u \in H_{p}^{m}(G).$$



<u>Froof:</u> For otherwise there is a sequence  $\{u_n\}$  with  $u_n \in H_p^m(G)$  and  $\|u_n\|_p^m = 1$  such that

From Theorem 2.4.2, it follows that we may assume that  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_p^{m-1}(G)$ .

Since  $\|\nabla^j u_n\|_p^0 \le \|u_n\|_p^m \le \|u_n\|_p^m = 1$ , it follows that  $u_n \to u$  in  $L_p(G)$ , so u = 0. But then  $\|\nabla^j u_n\|_p^0 \to 0$  so that  $\|\nabla^m u_n\|_p^0$  and hence  $\|u_n\|_p^m \to 0$ .

THEOREM 2.7.2: If  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  and G is bounded, there is a unique polynomial P of degree < m-1 (or = 0) such that the average over G of each  $D_q(u-P)$  is 0 if 0 < |c| < m-1.

This is easily proved by induction on m.

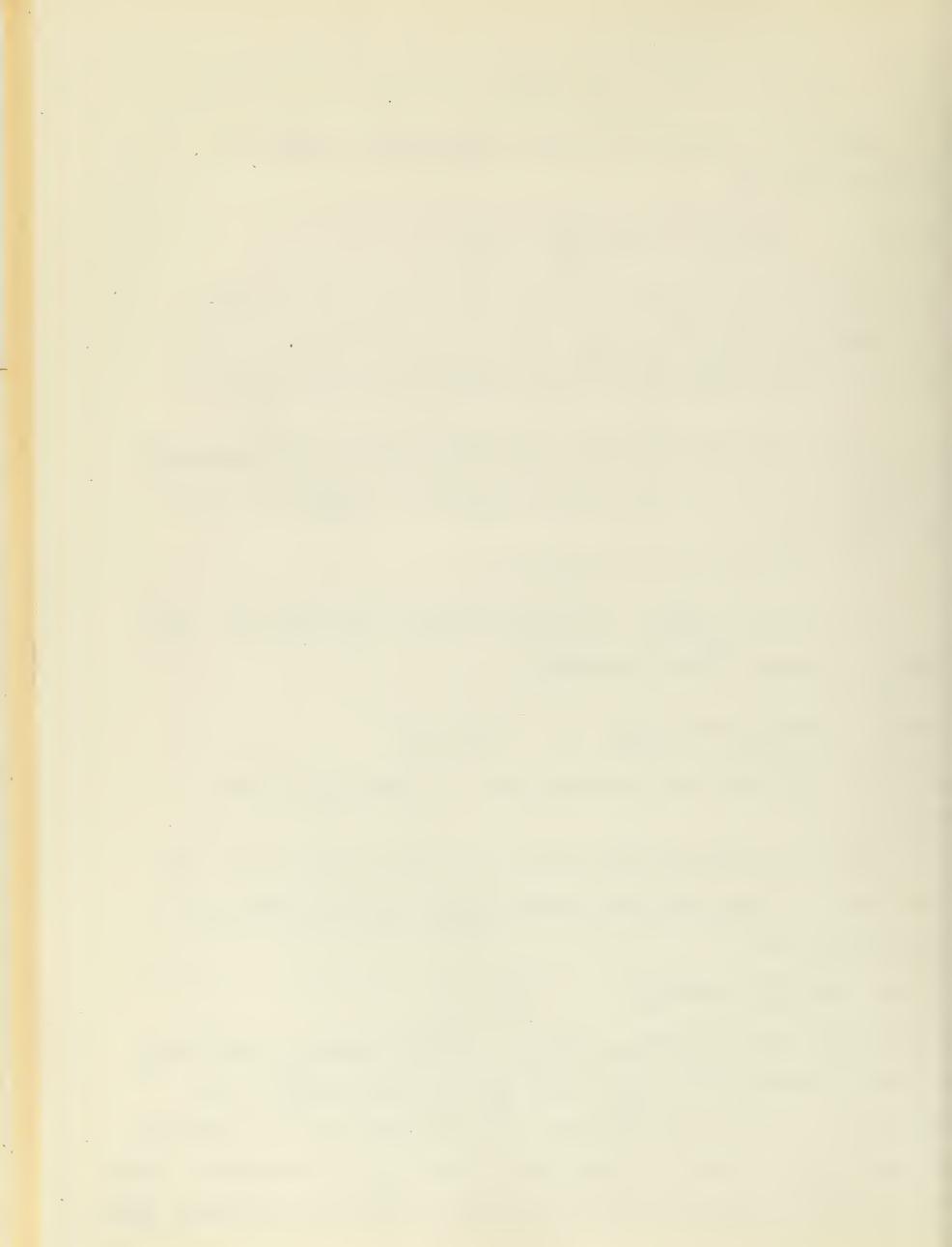
THEOPEM 2.7.3: Suppose G is a domain of class  $C^m$  and  $G \subset B(x_0, R)$ . Then there is a constant  $C(\sqrt[4]{m}, p, G)$  such that

(2.7.3) 
$$\| \boldsymbol{\nabla}^{j} \mathbf{u} \|_{p}^{o} \le CR^{m-j} \| \boldsymbol{\nabla}^{m} \mathbf{u} \|_{p}^{o}$$
,  $0 \le j \le m-1$ 

for every  $u \in H_p^m(G)$  such that the average over G of each  $D_\alpha u$  is 0 for  $0 \le |\alpha| \le m-1$ .

Proof: We first assume that  $G \subset B(0,1)$ . Suppose the theorem is not true. Then there is a j,  $0 \le j \le m-1$ , and a sequence  $\{u_n\}$  of functions of the type described such that

A subsequence, still called  $\{u_n\}$ , converges in  $H_p^{m-1}(G)$  to some u. From (2.7.4), it follows that  $\nabla^m u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_p(G)$  so that  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$  and  $\nabla^m u = 0$ . By induction on m and the use of mollifiers, it can be shown that u is a polynomial of degree  $\leq m-1$ . Clearly the averages over G of each  $D_q u$  is 0 if  $0 \leq |\alpha| \leq m-1$ . From Theorem 2.7.2, it follows that u=0. Since  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $H_p^m(G)$ , this contradicts (2.71).



## CHAPTER 3

THE GENERAL SECOND ORDER ELLIPTIC EQUATION WITH REAL COEFFICIENTS.

- 3.1. The H<sub>2</sub> existence theory. In this chapter, we discuss the existence differentiability of the solutions of the equation
- (3.1.1) Lu +  $\lambda u = f$  where Lu =  $-(a^{\alpha\beta}u_{,\alpha\beta} + b^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + cu)$ , u = 0 on  $\Im G$  where the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , and c are real but u and f may be complex. The coefficients  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  are always assumed continuous on the closure of the domain being considered and we assume that there is an h such that

$$(3.1.2) \qquad \qquad (1-h)|\lambda|^2 \leq a^{\alpha\beta}(x)\lambda_{x}\lambda_{\beta} \leq (1+h)|\lambda|^2 \text{ and } 0 < h < 1 \ ,$$
 for all x on  $\overline{G}$  and all  $\lambda$  . We assume that the  $b^{\alpha}$  and c are bounded

and measurable at least.

Our method of proof for the case that the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  are Lipschitz is as follows: Suppose u is a solution of (3.1.1) which  $\epsilon H_2^2(D)$  for each  $D \subset G$ . Then if  $v \in C_c^\infty(G)$ , we obtain by integrating by parts, the result that

(3.1.3) 
$$\int_{G} \{ \overline{\mathbf{v}}_{,\alpha} \, e^{\alpha \beta} \mathbf{u}_{,\beta} + \overline{\mathbf{v}} (e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\beta} - e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha} - e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha} - e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha} - e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\beta} + \overline{\mathbf{v}} (e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\beta} - e^{\alpha \beta}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha} -$$

We shall then show that there is a unique solution  $u \in H_{2o}^1(G)$  of (3.1.3) for each f in  $L_2$  provided  $\lambda$  is not in an isolated set of eigenvalues. We then show that  $u \in H_2^2(G)$  if G is of class  $C_1^1$  and obtain further differentiability properties of the solutions which hold when G, f, and the coefficients satisfy additional differentiability conditions.

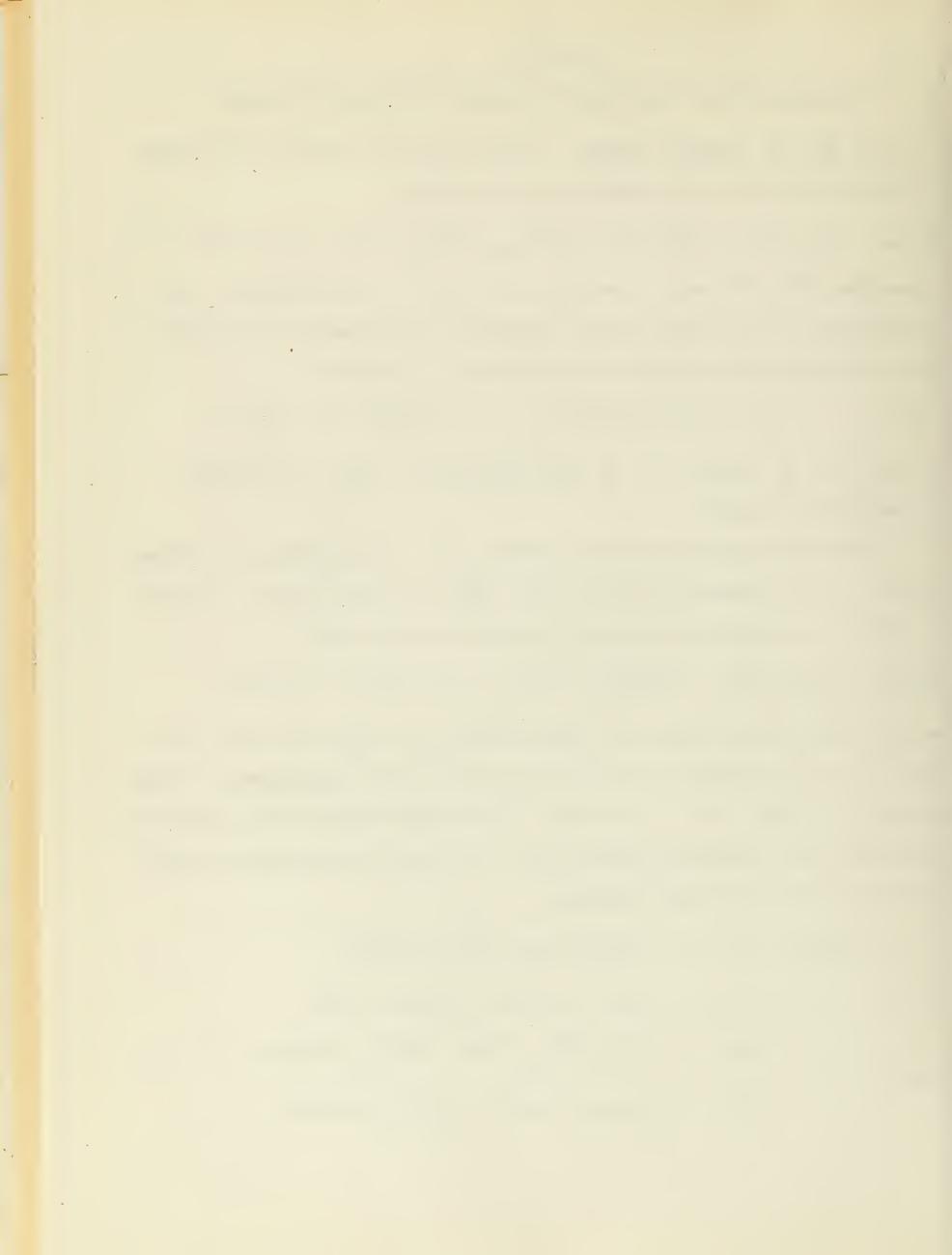
The equation (3.1.3) is a special case of the equation

(3.1.4) 
$$B(u, v) + \lambda G(u, v) = L(v), v \in H_{20}^{1}(G), \text{ where}$$

$$B(u, v) = \int_{G} [\overline{v}_{,\alpha}(a^{\alpha\beta}u_{,\beta} + b^{\alpha}u) + \overline{v}(c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + du)]dx,$$

$$(3.1.5)$$

$$C(u, v) = \int_{G} u\overline{v}dx, L(v) = -\int_{G} (e^{\alpha}\overline{v}_{,\alpha} + f\overline{v}) dx,$$



which we consider for the remainder of this section. In this section we shall begin by assuming merely that the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  are bounded and measurable and satisfy (3.1.2). We shall use the norm and inner product of (2.1.15) for m=1 throughout this section. We denote the bounds for b, c, and d in (3.1.5) by

(3.1.6) 
$$|t(x)| \le E_1, |c(x)| \le C_1, |d(x)| \le D,$$

THINKE 3.1.1: If u, v  $\epsilon$   $H_{20}^{1}(G)$  and G is bounded,

(3.1.7) 
$$\operatorname{ReB}(u, u) \ge 2^{-1}(1 - h)(||u||)^2 - \lambda_0 C(u, u)$$
,

(3,1.3) 
$$|3(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})| \leq K_1 ||\mathbf{u}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{v}||, (||\mathbf{v}|| = ||\mathbf{v}||_{20}^1)$$

Whome

$$(3.1.9) \quad \lambda_0 = D_1 + 2^{-1}(1 - h)^{-1}(B_1 + C_1)^2, \quad M_1 = (1 + h) + 2^{-1}(D_1 + C_1)R + 2^{-2}D_1R^2$$

$$\underline{\text{if}} \quad G \subset F(C_0, R).$$

Proof. For

$$|\int_{G} a^{\alpha \Omega} u_{\beta} \overline{v}_{\alpha} dx| \leq (1 + h) ||u|| \cdot ||v||$$

$$(1 - h) \| u \|^2 \le \int_{G} e^{\alpha \beta} v_{\beta} \overline{u}_{\alpha} dx \le (1 + h) \| u \|^2$$

$$|du\overline{v}| \leq D_{1}|u| \cdot |v| , |b^{\alpha}u\overline{v}_{,\alpha}| \leq B_{1}|u| \cdot |\nabla v|, |c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha}\overline{v}| \leq C_{1}|\nabla u| \cdot |v|$$

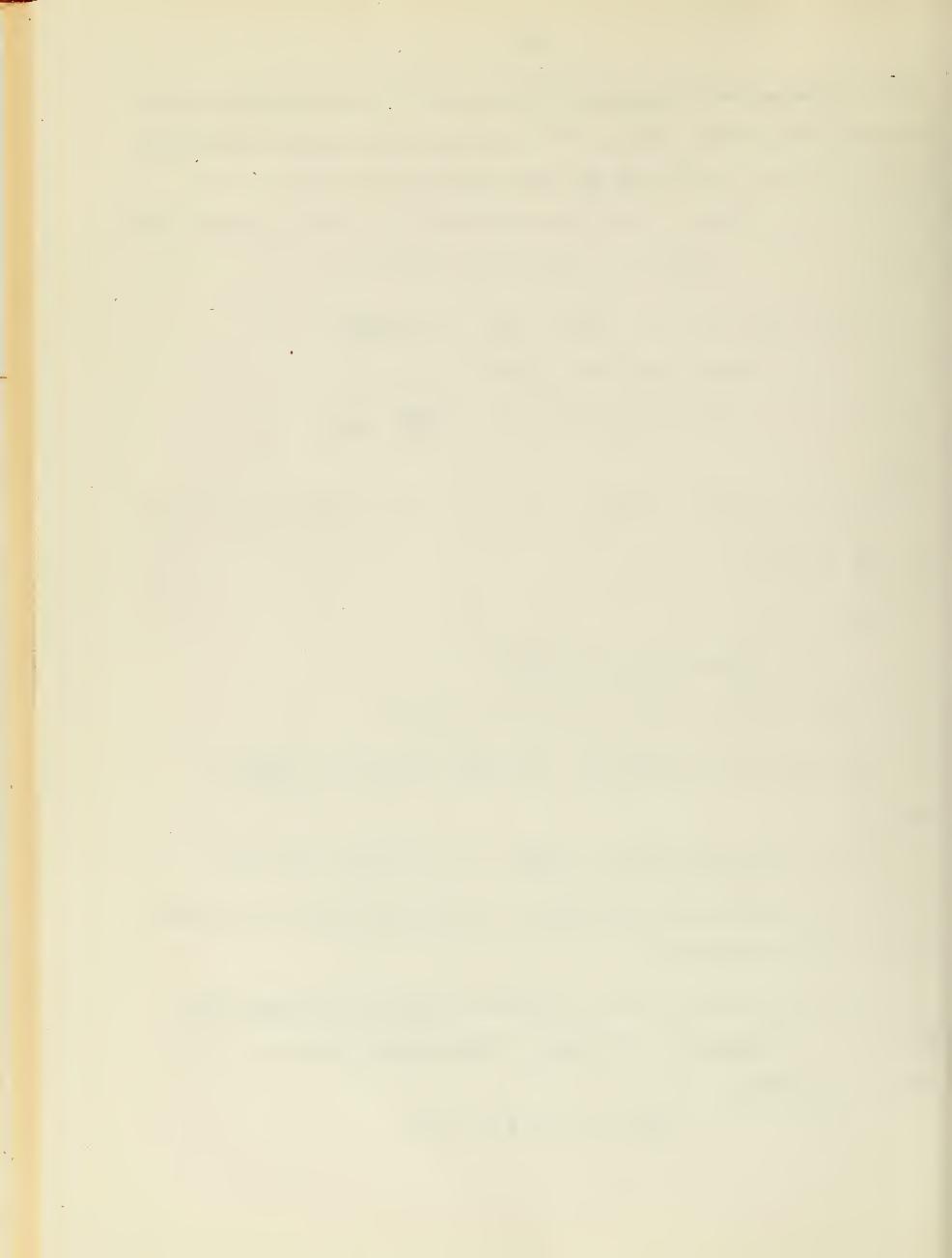
(3.1.10)

$$|b^{\alpha}u\overline{u}_{,\alpha} + c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha}\overline{u}| \le 2^{-1}[(1-h)|\nabla u|^{2} + (1-h)^{-1}(B_{1} + C_{1})^{2}|u|^{2}]$$

The results follow by integrating (3.1.10) and using the Schwarz and Poincare (Theorem 2.1.5) inequalities.

THEOREM 3.1.2 (Lemma of Lax and Wilgram): Suppose, in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $B_0(u, v)$  is linear in u for each v and conjugate linear in v for each u and suppose

(i) 
$$|B_0(u, v)| \leq M_1 ||u|| \cdot ||v||$$



(3.1.11)

(ii) 
$$|B_0(u, u)| \ge m_1 \cdot ||u||^2, m_1 > 0$$
.

Suppose the transformation To is defined by the condition

(3.1.12) 
$$B_{0}(u, v) = (T_{0}u, v).$$

Then To and To are operators with bounds Mo and mo , respectively.

Proc.: It is clear that  $T_0$  is a linear operator with bound  $M_1$ . From (3.1.11) (ii) and (3.1.12), we see that

$$||u||^2 \le ||B_0(u, u)|| = ||T_0u, u|| \le ||u|| \cdot ||T_0u||$$

sc that

$$||T_0u|| \ge m_1 ||u||$$

It follows easily that the range of  $T_0$  is closed. If the range were not the whole space, there would be a v such that  $B_0(u, v) = (T_0u, v) = 0$  for every u. But, by setting u = v, it follows from (ii) that v = 0. Thus  $T_0^{-1}$  is a bounded operator with norm  $\leq m_1^{-1}$ .

THEOREM 3.1.3: Suppose the transformation U is defined on H<sub>20</sub>(G) by the condition that

(3.1.13) 
$$C(u, v) = (Uu, v)^{\frac{1}{20}}, v \in H^{\frac{1}{20}}(G)$$
.

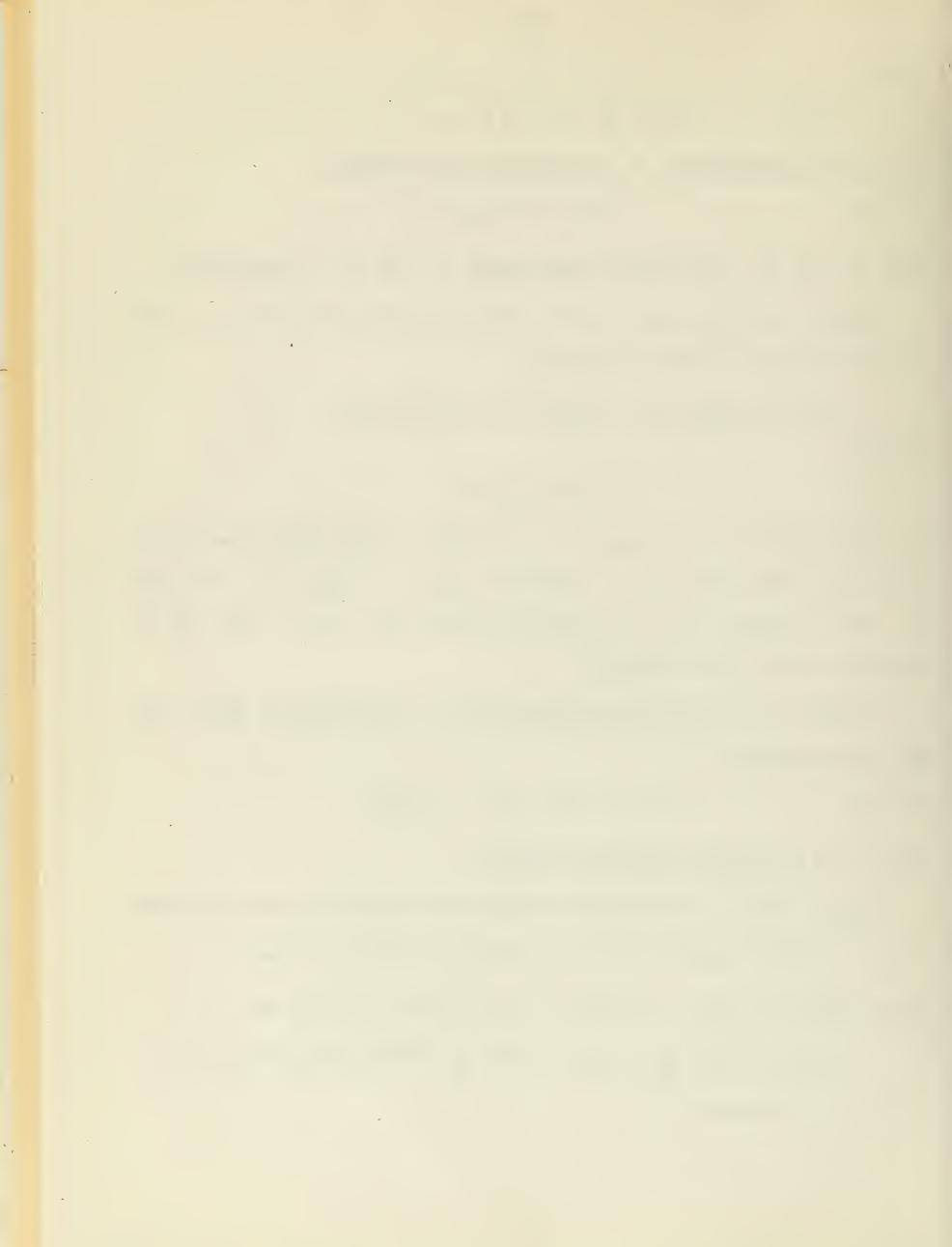
Then U is a completely continuous operator.

<u>Proof.</u> That U is an operator follows from Poincare's inequality, since  $\|Uu\| = \sup (Uu, v) = \sup \int_G u\overline{v} dx \le 2^{-1} R^2 \|u\| \text{ if } \|v\| = 1$ .

Next, suppose  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $H_{20}^1(G)$ . Then  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $L_2$  and

$$\| U(u_n - u) \| = \sup_{v} \int_{G} (u_n - u) \overline{v} dx \le 2^{-1/2} R \| v \| \cdot \| u_n - u \|_{O} \longrightarrow 0$$

so that U is compact.



THEOREM 3.1.4: If  $\lambda$  is not in a set  $\ell_0$ , which has no limit points in the plane, the equation (3.1.4) has a unique solution u in  $H^1_{20}(G)$  for each given c and f in  $L_2(G)$ . If  $\lambda$   $\epsilon$   $\ell_0$ , there are solutions of (3.1.4) in which  $u \neq 0$  and e = f = 0, but the manifold of these is finite dimensional. If  $\lambda_0$  is defined as in Theorem (3.1.1), then no real number  $\lambda_1 > \lambda_0$  is in  $\ell_0$ .

Proo . Let us define  $\lambda_0$  as in Theorem 3.1.1 and  $B_0$  by

(3.1.1'!) 
$$B_{0}(u, v) = B(u, v) + \lambda_{0} C(u, v)$$

and define  $T_0$  by (3.1.12). Then, equation (3.1.h) is equivalent to

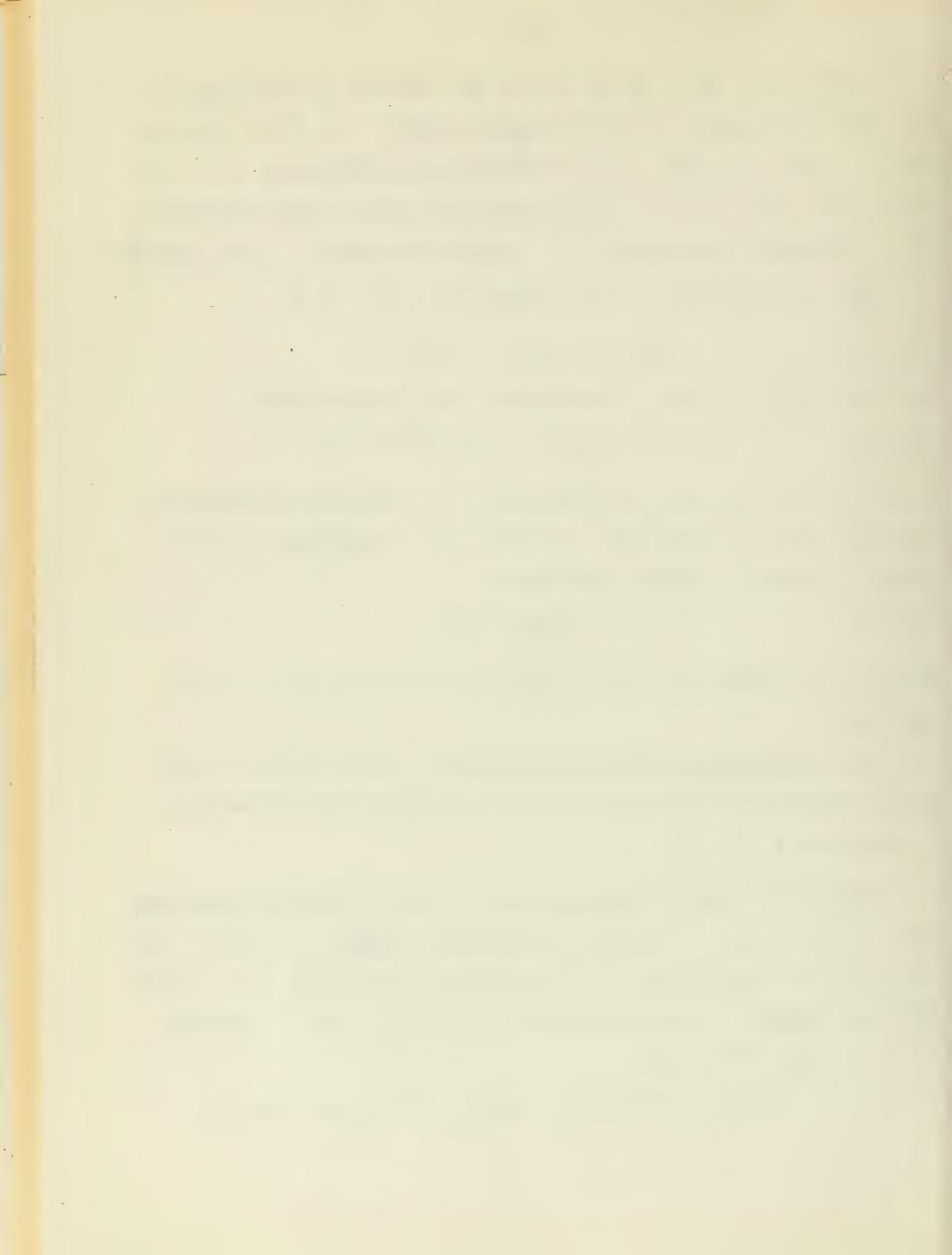
(3.1.15) 
$$T_0 u + (\lambda - \lambda_0) U u = w$$
, where  $(w, v) = L(v)$ .

Moreover, from Theorem 3.1.1, it follows that  $B_0$  satisfies the conditions of the Lemma of Lax and Hilgram with  $m_1 = 2^{-1}(1 - h)$ . Accordingly,  $T_0$  has a bounded inverse so (3.1.15) is equivalent to

(3.1.16) 
$$u + (\lambda - \lambda_0) T_0^{-1} U u = T_0^{-1} W .$$

Since  $T_0^{-1}U$  is compact, the theorem follows from the Riesz theory of linear operators.

3-2.  $H_2^2$  differentiability of the solutions. In this section, we first prove boundedness and approximation theorems and then show that the solution u obtained in § 3.1  $\epsilon$   $H_2^2$ .



Proof. In the equation (3.1.4) with  $\lambda=0$ , we transpose L(v) to the left side, set  $v=\zeta^2 u$ , and take the real part, where  $\zeta(x)=1$  if  $x \in D$ ,  $\zeta(x)=1-25^{-1}$  d(x, D) if  $0 \leq d(x, D) \leq \delta/2$ ,  $\zeta(x)=0$  elsewhere. Then, since  $a^{\alpha\beta}=a^{\alpha\beta}$  and the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  are real, we obtain

$$0 = \operatorname{Re} B(U, U) + \operatorname{Re} \int_{G} \{ \zeta e^{\alpha} \overline{U}_{,\alpha} - uu [a^{\alpha\beta} \zeta_{,\alpha} \zeta_{,\beta} + (c^{\alpha} - b^{\alpha}) \zeta \zeta_{,\alpha} ]$$

$$+ \zeta \overline{u} (e^{\alpha} \zeta_{,\alpha} + \zeta f) \} dx$$

where we have set

The result follows since

 $U=\zeta u \text{ , so that } v_{,\alpha}=\zeta(U_{,\alpha}+\zeta_{,\alpha}u) \text{ , } \zeta u_{,\alpha}=U_{,\alpha}-\zeta_{,\alpha}u \text{ , etc.}$  Since  $0\leq \zeta(x)\leq 1$  ,  $\zeta$  s  $C_1^0(\overline{G})$ , and  $|\nabla \zeta(x)|\leq 2\delta^{-1}$  , we see from Theorem 3.1.1 that (norms in  $L_2(G)$ )

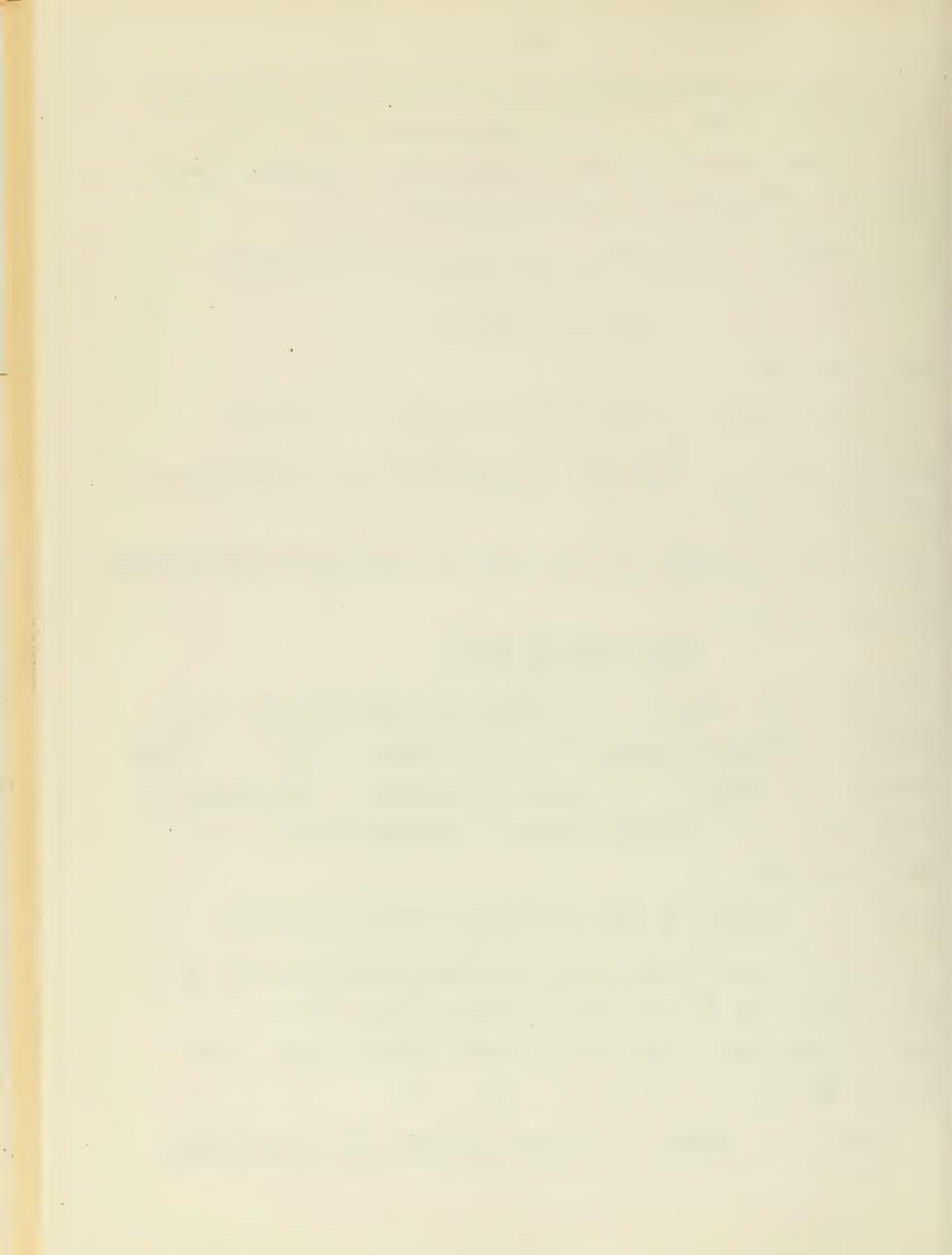
 $0 \ge m_1 \|\nabla U\|^2 - \|e\| \cdot \|\nabla U\| - \|u\|^2 [\lambda_0 + L(1+h)\delta^{-2} + 2(B_1 + C_1)\delta^{-1}] - \|u\|(2\delta^{-1}\|e\| + \|f\|).$ 

$$\|\nabla \mathbf{u}\|_{\mathbf{D}} = \|\nabla \mathbf{u}\|_{\mathbf{D}} \leq \|\nabla \mathbf{u}\|_{\mathbf{G}}.$$

THYOREM 3.2.2: Suppose  $G = G_R$ , suppose the coefficients and e and f satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.2.1 on G, suppose  $u \in L_2(G)$ ,  $u \in H_2^1(G_r)$  for each r < R, suppose u = 0 along  $\sigma_R$ , and suppose u is a solution of (3.1.4) with  $\lambda = 0$ . There is a constant C, depending only on h,  $B_1$ ,  $C_1$ , and  $D_1$ , such that

Proof: The proof is identical with the preceding proof except that we define  $\zeta(x)=1$  if  $|x|\leq r$ ,  $\zeta(x)=1-2(R-r)^{-1}(|x|-r)$  if  $r\leq |x|\leq (r+R)/2$ ,  $\zeta(x)=0$  if  $|x|\geq (R+r)/2$ . Then u, v, and U all vanish on  $\partial_R$ .

THEOREM 3.2.3: Suppose G is bounded and suppose that the coefficients



 $a_n^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b_n^{\alpha}$ ,  $c_n^{\alpha}$ , and  $d_n$  all satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.2.1 uniformly on G and converge almost everywhere to  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ ,  $c^{\alpha}$ , and d, respectively, and suppose that  $e_n^{\alpha} \rightarrow e^{\alpha}$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in  $L_2(G)$ . Suppose that  $u_n \rightarrow f$  in  $H_2^1(G)$  and that  $u_n$  is a solution of  $(3.1.4)_n$  for each n. Then n is a solution of  $(3.1.4)_n$  for each n.

Proof: For each fixed  $v \in H_{20}^{1}(G)$ , we see that

$$a_n^{\alpha\beta}\overline{v}_{,\alpha} \longrightarrow a^{\alpha\beta}\overline{v}_{,\alpha}, b_n^{\alpha}\overline{v}_{,\alpha} \longrightarrow b^{\alpha}\overline{v}_{,\alpha}, \text{ etc.}$$

in L2(G), so that

$$B_n(u_n, v) \longrightarrow B(u, v), C(u_n, v) \longrightarrow C(u,v), L_n(v) \longrightarrow L(v)$$
.

LEMMA 3.2.1: If  $\varphi \in H_p^1(G)$ ,  $D \subset G$ ,  $\overline{D} \subset G_{2H}$ ,  $e_{\gamma}$  is the unit vector in the  $x^{\gamma}$  direction, and  $\varphi_h$  is defined on  $\overline{D}$  for 0 < h < H by

$$\Psi_{h}(x) = h^{-1}[\Psi(x + he_{\gamma}) - \Psi(x)],$$

then  $\varphi_h \longrightarrow \varphi_{,\Upsilon}$  in  $L_p(D)$ .

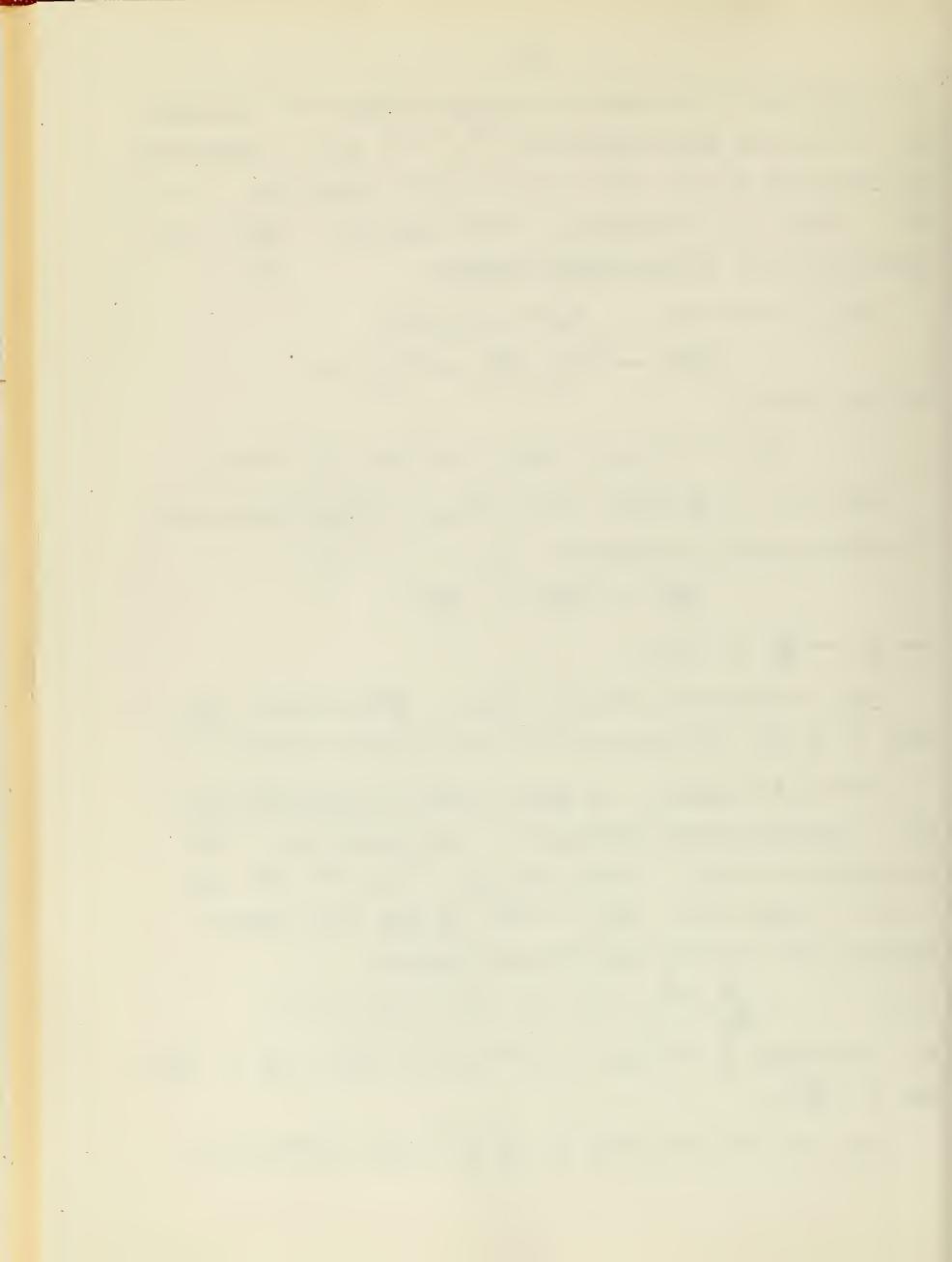
<u>Proof.</u> We approximate strongly in  $H_p^1(G_H)$  to p by functions  $p_n$  of class C' on  $\overline{G}_H$ . The remainder of the proof is like that of Lemma 2.4.1.

THEOREM 3.2.4: Suppose G is bounded, suppose the coefficients and e and f satisfy the previous conditions on G, and suppose that  $u \in H_2^1(G)$  and satisfies (3.1.4) on G. Suppose also that  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  and  $b^{\alpha} \in C_1^0(D)$  and  $e \in H_2^1(D)$  for each  $D \subset G$ . Then  $u \in H_2^2(D)$  for each  $D \subset G$  where it satisfies (almost everywhere) the differential equation

(3.2.4) 
$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\alpha}} (a^{\alpha} \beta_{u}, \beta + b^{\alpha} u + e^{\alpha}) + c^{\alpha} u_{,\alpha} + du + f = 0.$$

If G is of class  $C_1^1$ ,  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  and  $b^{\alpha} \in C_1^0(\overline{G})$ , and  $e^{\alpha} \in H_2^1(G)$ , and  $u \in H_{20}^1(G)$ , then  $u \in H_2^2(G)$ .

Proof. Let DCCG and choose D' and D" so that DCCD'CCD"CCG.



Let U be the D"-potential of  $c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha}$  + du + f and let

$$E^{\alpha} = b^{\alpha}u + e^{\alpha} - U_{,\alpha} .$$

Then (3.1.4) is equivalent to

(3.2.5) 
$$\int_{D''} v_{\alpha} (a^{\alpha \beta} u_{\beta} + E^{\alpha}) dx = 0$$
 for  $v \in H_{20}^{1}(D'')$ 

and  $\mathbb{E}^{\alpha} \in H^{\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbb{D}^{"})$  . We suppose  $\mathbb{D}' \subset \mathbb{D}^{"}_{\mathbb{H}}$  .

Now, suppose  $v \in C_c^\infty(D')$ ,  $e_\gamma$  is the unit vector in the  $x^\gamma$  direction. For 0 < |h| < H , we define

$$v_h(x) = h^{-1}[v(x - he_{\gamma}) - v(x)], u_h(x) = h^{-1}[u(x + he_{\gamma}) - u(x)], x \in D'$$

Then, by writing out what vh is and changing variables as indicated, we obtain

$$\int_{D} v_{h,\alpha}(x) (a^{\alpha\beta}u_{,\beta} + E^{\alpha}) dx = \int_{D} v_{,\alpha}(x) [a^{\alpha\beta}(x)u_{h,\beta} (x) + E^{\alpha}(x) dx = 0]$$

$$(3.2.6)$$

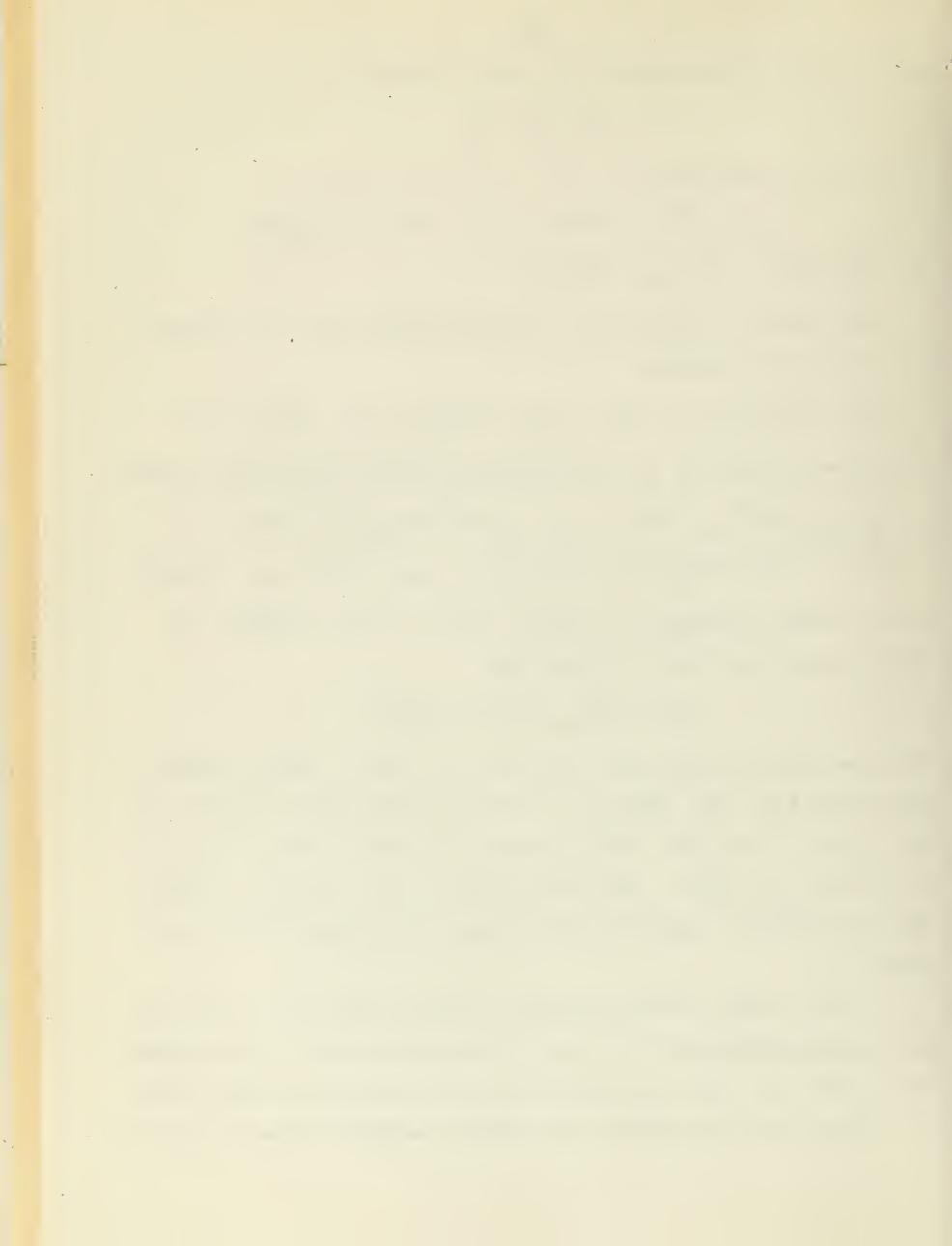
$$E_{h}^{\alpha}(x) = h^{-1} \{ [a^{\alpha\beta}(x + he_{\gamma}) - a^{\alpha}(x)]u_{,\beta}(x + he_{\gamma}) + E^{\alpha}(x + he_{\gamma}) - E^{\alpha}(x) ] \}$$

From the bounded convergence of  $h^{-1}[a^{\alpha\beta}(x + he_{\gamma}) - a^{\alpha}(x)]$  to  $a^{\alpha\beta}_{,\gamma}(x)$  and from Lemmas 2.1.1 and 3.2.1, it follows that

$$E_h^{\alpha} \longrightarrow a_{,\gamma}^{\alpha\beta} u_{,\beta} + E_{,\gamma}^{\alpha} \text{ in } L_2(D').$$

From Lemma 3.2.1, it follows that  $u_h \longrightarrow u_{,\gamma}$  in  $L_2(D^1)$ . Then it follows from Theorem 3.2.1 that  $\|\nabla u_h\|_{2,D}^0$  is uniformly bounded for 0 < |h| < H so that  $u_h \longrightarrow u^*$  in  $H_2^1(D)$  for some sequence of  $h \longrightarrow 0$ . But  $u^*$  must be  $u_{,\gamma}$  so that  $u_{,\gamma} \in H_2^1(D)$ . Since this is true for any  $\gamma$  and D,  $u \in H_2^2(D)$ . Then the differential equation (3.2.4) follows by integrating (3.1.4) by parts on each D.

In order to prove the last statement, we pick any point  $x_0$  on  $\Im G$  and map a boundary neighborhood N of  $x_0$  in the proper way onto  $G_R$  by a regular map of class  $G_1^1$ . Then (3.1.4) goes over into an equation of the same form on  $G_R$ . We may repeat the argument of the preceding paragraphs for each  $\gamma \leq \gamma - 1$ ,



since each  $u_h$  vanishes along  $\sigma_r$ . Using Theorem 3.2.2 this time, we conclude that each  $u_{,\gamma}$  with  $\gamma \leq 1 - 1$  of  $H_2^1(G_r)$  for each r < R. This implies that all  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  with  $\gamma \leq 1 - 1$  and  $1 \leq \delta \leq 1$  of  $L_2(G_r)$ . But now if  $x^{-1} > \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  is also in  $H_2^1$  and  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  satisfies (3.2.4). Since  $a^{-1/2} > 0$ , we can solve that equation for  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  and thus conclude that it  $\varepsilon$   $L_2(G_r)$  also so that  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  also  $\varepsilon$   $H_2^1(G_r)$  so that  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  of  $\sigma$  is in a neighborhood on which  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  we conclude that  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  of  $\sigma$  is in a neighborhood on which  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$  we conclude that  $u_{,\gamma\delta}$   $H_2^2(G_r)$ .

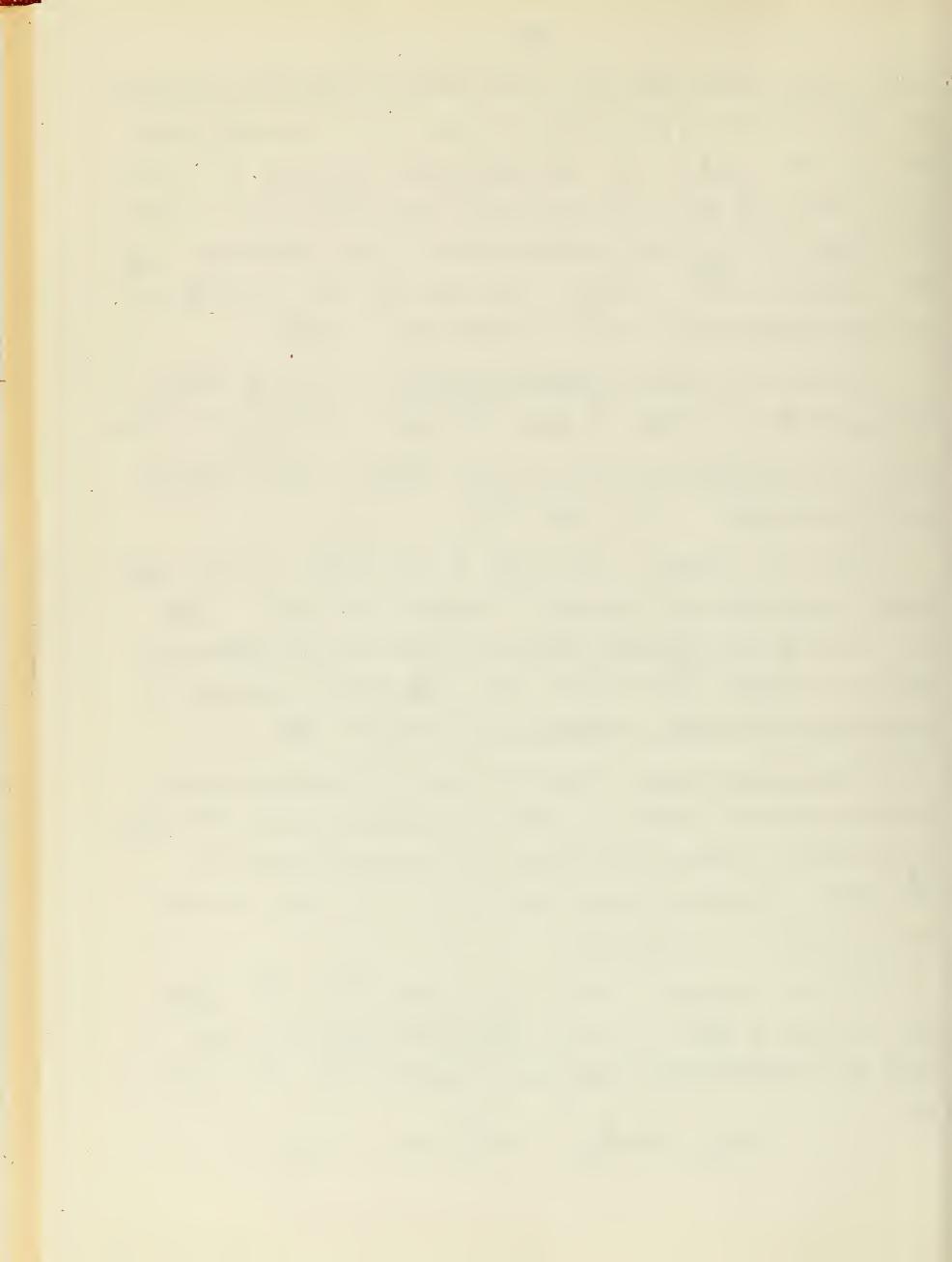
COROLLARY 1: If, for some boundary neighborhood N of  $x_0$  on  $G \cup g$ , the part N  $\cap g$  is of class  $C_1^1$  and if  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  and  $b^{\alpha} \in C_1^0(\mathbb{N})$  and  $e^{\alpha} \in H_2^1(\mathbb{N})$ , and if u is the solution of (3.1.4) in  $H_{20}^1(G)$ , then u  $\in H_2^2(\mathbb{N}')$  for some boundary neighborhood N' of  $x_0$  with N' $\subset \mathbb{N}$ .

THEOREM 3.2.5: Suppose G is of class  $C_1^1$ ,  $a^{\alpha\beta} \in C_1^0(\overline{G})$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$  and c are bounded and measurable on G, and the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  satisfy (3.1.2) on  $\overline{G}$ . Then, if  $\lambda$  is not in a set  $\beta$  without finite limit points, there is a unique solution of (3.1.1) which  $\epsilon H_2^2(G) \cap H_{20}^1(G)$ . If  $\lambda \in \beta$ , there is a non-empty but finite dimensional manifold of solutions in  $H_2^2(G) \cap H_{20}^1(G)$  with f = 0.

3.3 The equation (3.1.1). Theorem 3.2.5 sums up the results so far obtained concerning this equation. An essential hypothesis is that the  $a^{\alpha\beta} \in C_1^0(G)$ . In this section, we replace this hypothesis with the weaker one that the  $a^{\alpha\beta} \in C^0(\overline{G})$ . We continue to assume that the  $b^{\alpha}$  and  $c \in M(G)$ . We shall also assume that G is of class  $C_1^1$ .

LEMMA 3.3.1: Suppose  $G = B(0, R_0)$  or  $G_{R_0}$  and  $a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$ . Then there exists an  $R_1$  with  $0 < R_1 < R_0$ , which depends only on V, h, the bounds for the coefficients and the moduli of continuity of the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ , such that

 $\|\mathbf{u}\|_{2,R}^{2} \le 2\|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}\|_{2,R}^{0}$  if  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{H}_{2}^{2}$  and  $0 < R \le R_{1}$ 



if  $\Lambda(u) \subset B_R$  or u vanishes along  $\sigma_R$  and near  $\Sigma_R$ . Here

(3.3.1)  $|(\|u\|_{2,R}^2)^2 = \int_{B_R} (|\nabla^2 u|^2 + R^{-2}|\nabla u|^2 + R^{-4}u^2) dx$ 

Proof: We first prove this for the case  $B_R$  . It is sufficient to prove it for u of class  $C_c^2(B_R)$  . Then, as in Section 1.3,

$$u(x) = -\int_{B_{\Omega}} K_{O}(x - \xi) \Delta u(\xi) d\xi.$$

Thus, from Theorem 2.6.2, it follows that  $(\|\mathbf{\hat{\gamma}}\| = \|\mathbf{\hat{\gamma}}\|_{2.R}^{0})$ 

$$\|u\|_{2,R}^{2} \le \|-\Delta u\| \le \|Lu\| + \|(a - a_{0}) \cdot \nabla^{2}u + b \cdot \nabla u + cu\|$$

$$\leq \|L u\| + [\varepsilon(R) + R] R + C_1 R^2]' \|u\|_{2,R}^2$$
,  $\lim_{R\to 0} \varepsilon(R) = 0$ 

The result for  $B_R$  follows. Now if  $u \in H_2^2(G_R)$ , vanishes along  $\sigma_R$  and near  $\sum_R$ , then it is easy to see by using mollifiers of the form  $\psi(x) = \psi(|x|)$  that  $u \in H_2^2(B_R)$  if it is extended to the part  $x \neq 0$  of  $B_R$  by reflection (3.3.2)

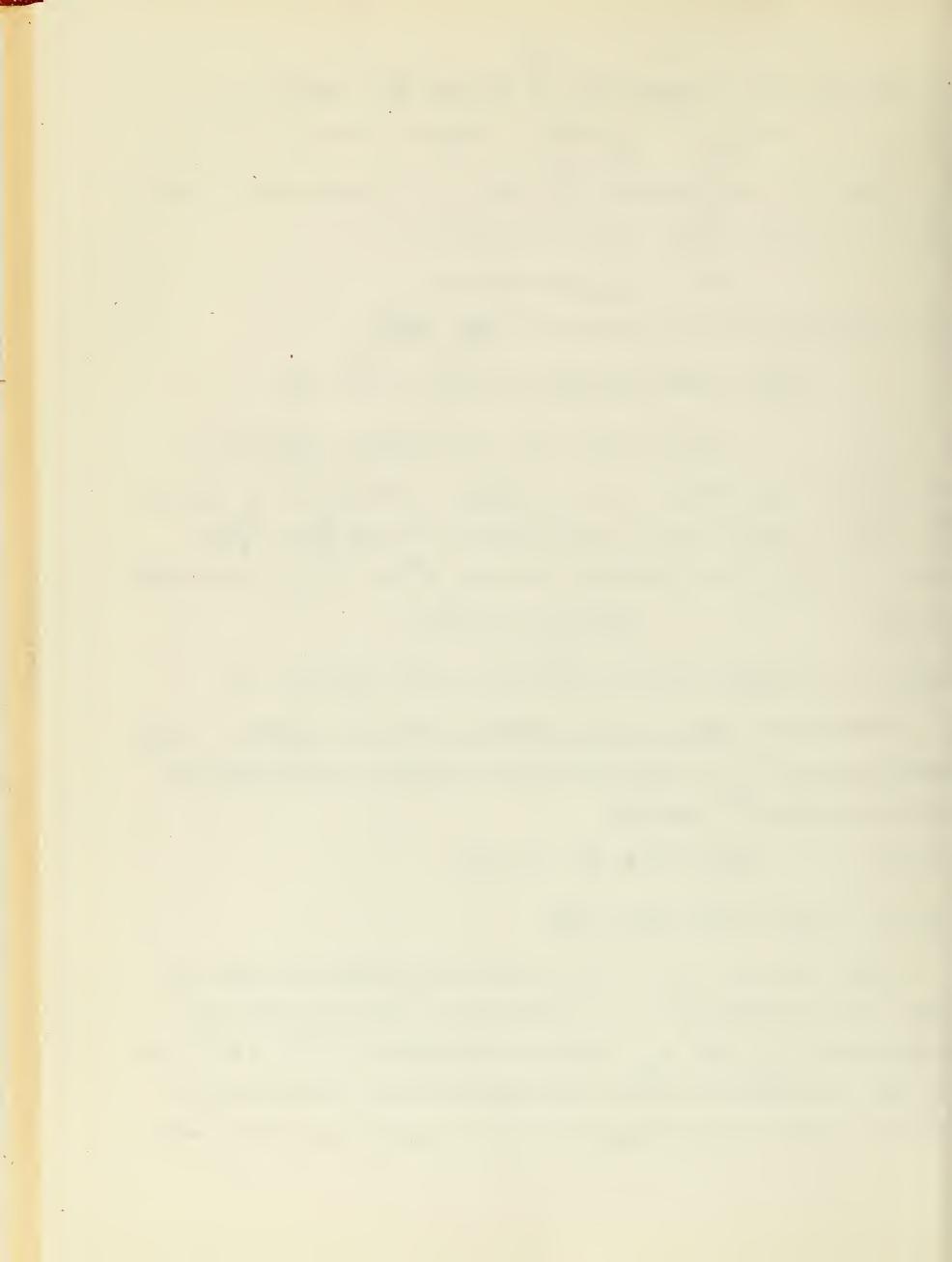
Since  $\Delta u$  is extended by the same formula, the result follows for  $G_{\!\!R}$  .

THEOREM 3.3.1: Under our general hypotheses, there is a constant C which depends only on  $\sqrt{\ }$ , h, G, the bounds for the coefficients, and the moduli of continuity of the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ , such that

(3.3.3) 
$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_{2}^{2} \leq C[\|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}\|_{2}^{0} + \|\mathbf{u}\|_{1}^{0}]$$

for all  $u \in H_2^2(G)$  which vanish on  $\mathfrak{d}G$ .

Proof: First, let  $x_0 \in G$ . By an affine transformation with upper and lower bounds depending only on h, we may carry  $x_0$  into the origin and a neighborhood of  $x_0$  into  $B_{R_0}$  in such a way that the new  $a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$ . If  $a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$ 



x axis pointing into G, and then may follow this by a map of the form  $x^{\alpha} = x^{\alpha}$  for  $\alpha < \gamma$ ,  $x^{\gamma} = x^{\gamma} - f(x^{\gamma})$  which flattens out a part of g near g ; the result is a regular map of class g of a boundary neighborhood of g onto g so that g of . It follows from Lemma 3.3.1 that there is a constant g depending only on g and that each point g of g is in a neighborhood or boundary neighborhood g of which depends only on the quantities stated, such that if g (u) g (meaning g or g and along g on g if g is a boundary neighborhood) then

$$\| u \|_{2,G}^{2} \le c_{1} \cdot \| L u \|_{2,G}^{0} \quad (u \in H_{2}^{2}(G)).$$

There is a partition of unity  $\zeta_1,\ldots,\zeta_S$ , each  $\zeta_S\in C_1^1(\overline{G})$  and having support in one such neighborhood

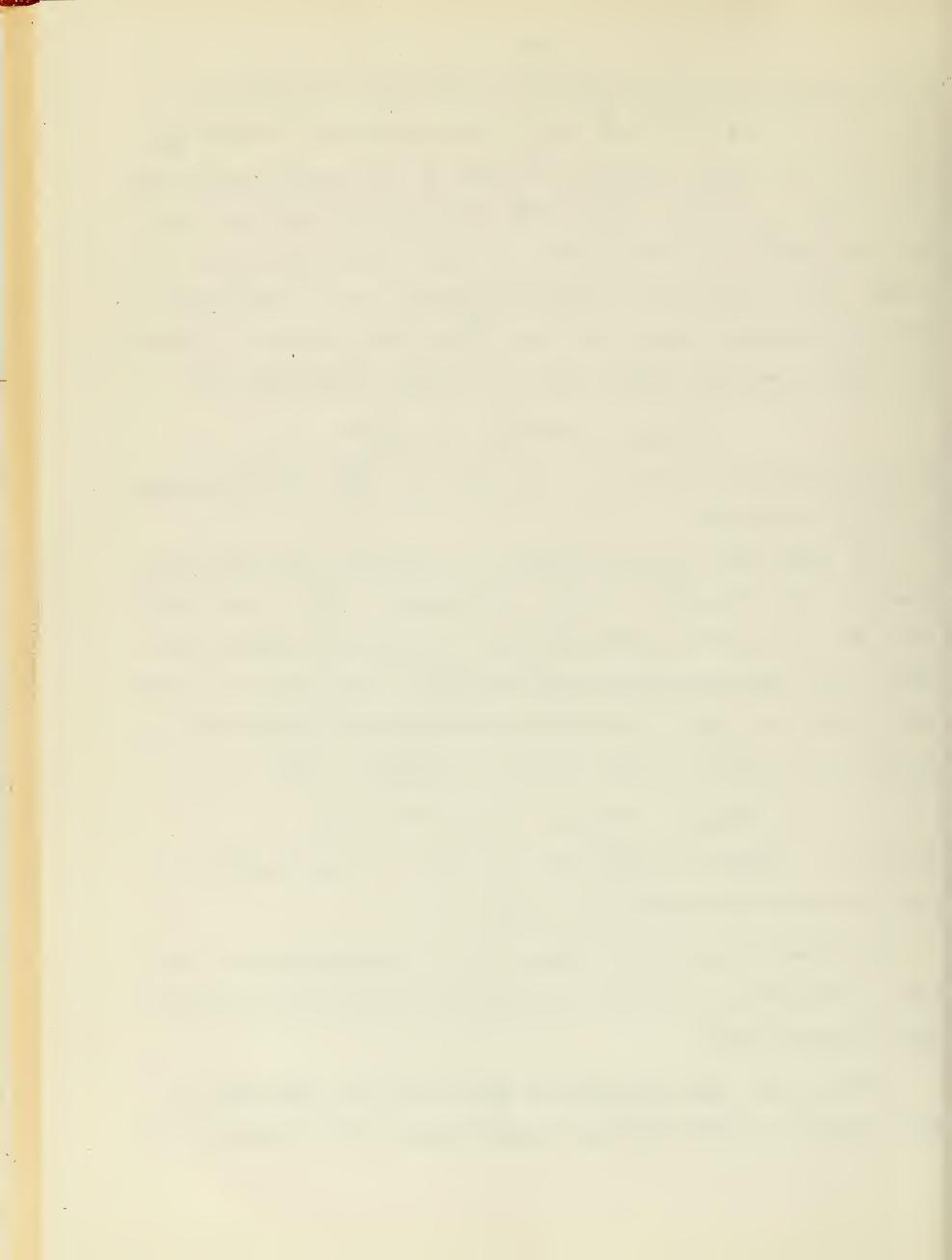
Now, suppose there is no such constant C in (3.3.3). Then there exists a sequence  $\{L_n\}$  of operators and  $\{u_n\}$  of functions in  $H_2^2(G)$  which vanish along  $\partial G$  such that the coefficients of the  $L_n$  satisfy our conditions uniformly  $(a_n^{\alpha\beta})$  being equicontinuous such that  $\|u_n\|_2^2 = 1$ ,  $L_n u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_2(G)$ , and  $u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_1(G)$ . By choosing a subsequence, we may assume that  $u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $H_2^2(G)$ , so that  $u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $H_2^1(G)$ . Then

$$L_n(\zeta_s u_n) = \zeta_s L_n(u_n) + M_s(u_n) \longrightarrow 0 \text{ in } L_2(G)$$

for each s . But then  $\|\zeta_{s}u_{n}\|_{2}^{2}\longrightarrow 0$  for each s , so that  $\|u_{n}\|_{2}^{2}\longrightarrow 0$  , which contradicts our assumption that  $\|u_{n}\|_{2}^{2}=1$  ,

The following theorem and its method of proof is essentially due to Nirenberg who explained it to the writer in an informal conversation at the International Congress in 1958.

THEOREM 3.3.2: Under our general hypotheses, there is a real number  $\lambda_0$  and a constant C, which depend only on the quantities stated in Theorem 3.3.1,



such that

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_{2}^{2} \leq C \|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u} + \lambda\mathbf{u}\|^{0}$$
 if  $\lambda$  real,  $\lambda \geq \lambda_{0}$ 

for all u in  $H_2^2(G)$  which vanish on G.

Proof. For any given  $\eta_1 > 0$ , each point  $x_0$  is in a neighborhood or boundary neighborhood in which  $|a(x) - a(x_0)| < \eta_1$ . We choose a sequence  $\zeta_s$ ,  $s = 1, \ldots, \delta$ , such that each  $\zeta_s \in C_1^1(\overline{G})$  and  $\zeta_1^2 + \ldots + \zeta_S^2 = 1$ . We let  $u_s = \zeta_s u$  and note that

$$\zeta_{s} Lu = Lu_{s} + M_{s}u$$

where each M is an operator of the first order. Then

(3.3.4) 
$$(L_{11}, u)_{2}^{0} = \sum_{s=1}^{s} (\zeta_{s}L_{u}, \zeta_{s}u)_{2}^{0} = \sum_{s} (L_{u_{s}}, u_{s})_{2}^{0} + (M'u, u)_{2}^{0}$$

where M' is of the first order. But

$$(Lu_{s}, u_{s})_{2}^{0} = -\int_{G} a_{0s}^{\alpha\beta} u_{s,\alpha\beta} \overline{u}_{s} dx - \int_{G} (a^{\alpha\beta} - a_{0s}^{\alpha\beta}) u_{s,\alpha\beta} \overline{u}_{s} dx$$

$$(3.3.5)$$

$$-\int_{G} (b^{\alpha} u_{s,\alpha} + cu_{s}) \overline{u}_{s} dx , a_{0s}^{\alpha\beta} = a^{\alpha\beta} (x_{0s})$$

where  $x_{Os}$  is in the small support of  $\zeta_{S}$  . Since, for each s ,

$$-\int_{G} a_{Os}^{\alpha\beta} u_{s,\alpha\beta} \overline{u}_{s} dx = \int_{G} a_{Os}^{\alpha\beta} u_{s,\alpha} \overline{u}_{s,\beta} dx \ge 0,$$

we see, by summing the real part of (3.3.5) with respect to s and using the facts that  $u_s = \zeta_s u$ , etc., that

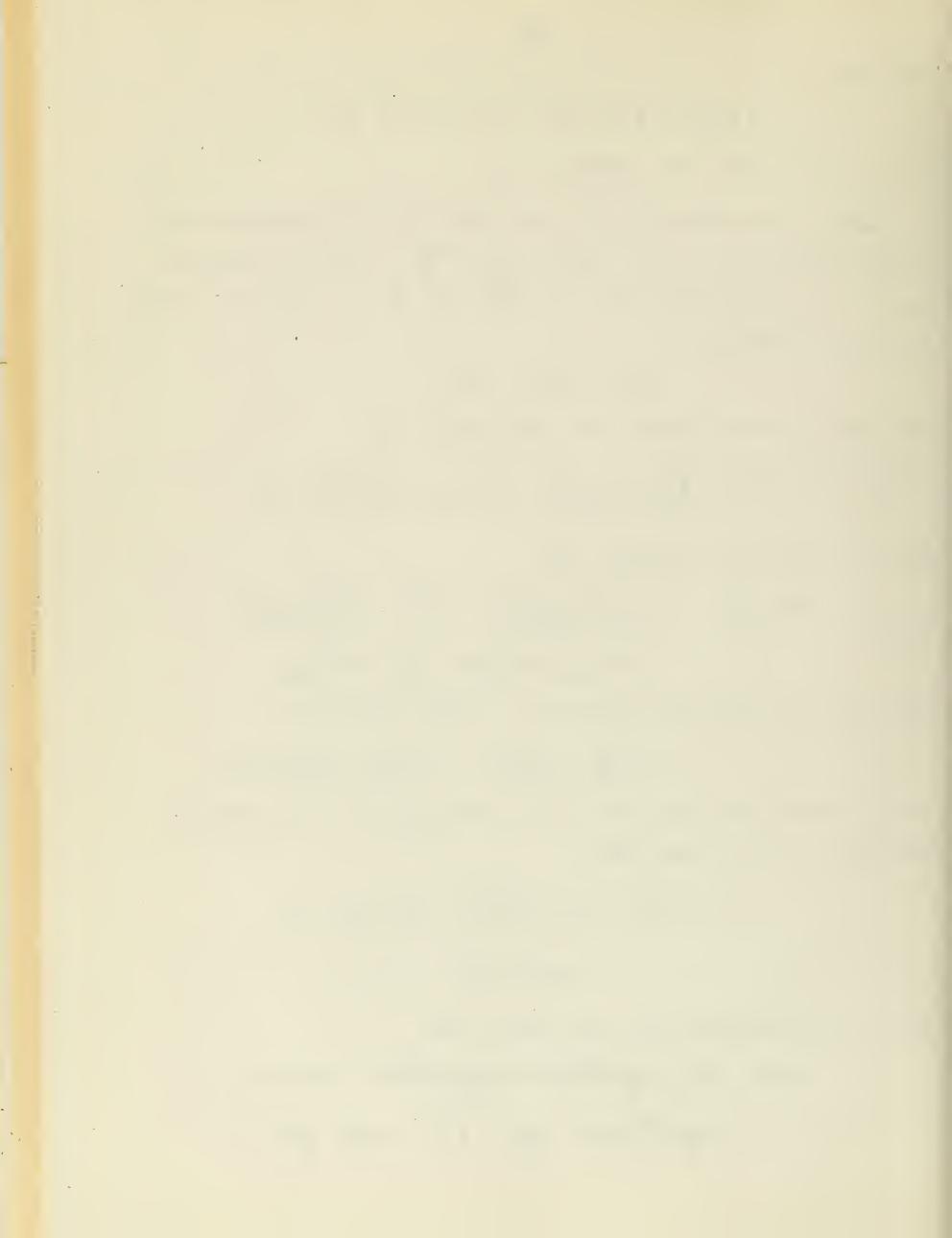
Re (Lu, u)
$$_{2}^{0} \ge - \operatorname{Re} \int_{G} \left[ \sum_{s} \zeta_{s}^{2} (a^{\alpha\beta} - a_{0s}^{\alpha}) \right] u_{,\alpha\beta} \overline{u} dx$$

$$+ \operatorname{Re}(Mu, u)_{2}^{0}$$

where M is an operator of the first order. Thus

Re 
$$(Lu, u)_{2}^{0} \ge -\eta_{1} \|\nabla^{2}u\| \cdot \|u\| - C_{1}(\eta_{1}) (\|\nabla u\| + \|u\|) \cdot \|u\|$$

$$\ge -2\eta_{1} \|\nabla^{2}u\| \cdot \|u\| - C(\eta_{1}) \cdot \|u\|^{2} \cdot (\|\varphi\| = \|\varphi\|_{2}^{0})$$



But, now  $(\|\boldsymbol{\varphi}\| = \|\boldsymbol{\rho}\|_{2}^{0})$ , for real  $\lambda$ ,  $\|Lu + \lambda u\|^{2} = \|Lu\|^{2} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{2} \|u\|^{2} + 2\lambda \operatorname{Re}(Lu, u)$   $\geq \|Lu\|^{2} + \lambda^{2} \|u\|^{2} - 2\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}(\|\boldsymbol{\nabla}^{2}u\|^{2} + \lambda^{2} \|u\|^{2}) - 2\lambda C(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}) \|u\|^{2}$   $\geq \|Lu\|^{2}(1 - 2r_{1}C_{2}) + [\lambda^{2}(1 - 2\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}) - 2\lambda C(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}) - 2 C_{2}] \|u\|^{2}$ 

where  $C_2$  is the constant of Theorem 3.3.1. If we first choose  $\eta_1$  so small that  $(1-2\eta_1)\geq 1/2$  and  $(1-2\eta_1C_2)\geq 1/2$ , we may then choose  $\lambda_0$  so large that  $\lambda^2/2-2\lambda C(\eta_1)-2\eta_1C_2\geq 1/2$  for  $\lambda\geq\lambda_0$ . Then

$$\|I. u + \lambda u\|^2 \ge \frac{1}{2} [\|I. u\|^2 + \|u\|^2]$$

from which the theorem follows.

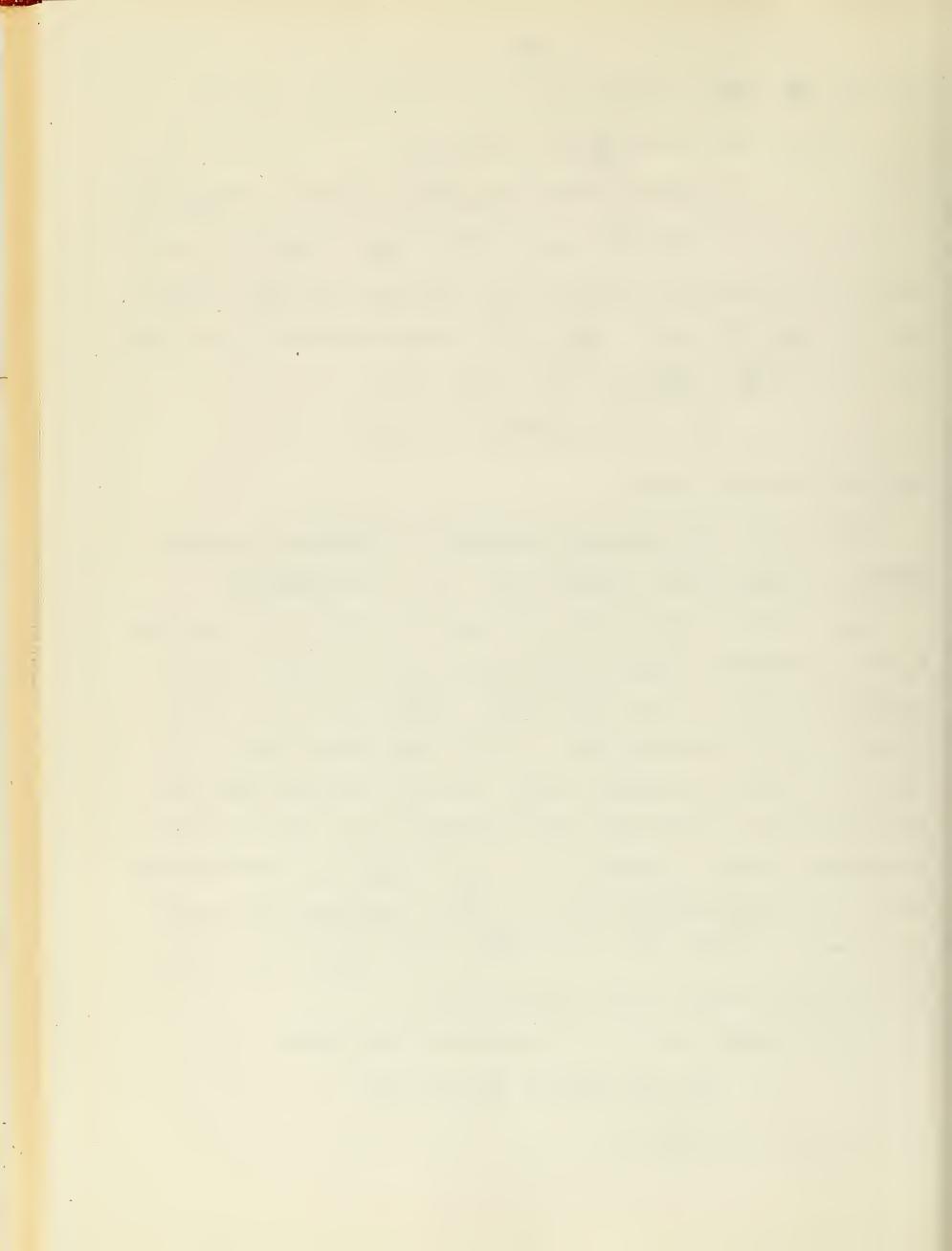
THEOREM 3.3.3: The conclusions of Theorem 3.2.5 hold under the general hypotheses of this section. In fact no real  $\lambda > \lambda_0$  is an eigenvalue.

Proof: First, suppose  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_0$ . We away approximate to L by operators  $L_n$  whose coefficients satisfy our conditions uniformly with  $a_n^{\alpha\beta}$  converging uniformly to  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  on  $\overline{G}$ , each  $a_n^{\alpha\beta} \in \mathcal{C}_1^0(\overline{G})$ . Define  $L_{1n} = L_n + \lambda_1 I$  as an operator on  $L_2(G)$  with domain all  $u \in H_2^2(G)$  which vanish on  $\mathfrak{F}_3G$ . If, for some  $n,\lambda$ , were an eigenvalue for  $L_n$ , then  $L_{1n}$  would carry some nonzero element into 0 which would contradict Theorem 3.3.2. Thus  $\lambda_1$  is not an eigenvalue for any n. Hence, if  $f \in L_2(G)$ ,  $L_{1n}^{-1}(f) = u_n$  is defined for each n and  $\|u_n\|_2^2 \leq C\|f\|_2^0$  for all n. Hence a subsequence, still called  $\{u_n\}$ , - u in  $H_2^2(G)$  and u=0 on G. Then  $L_{1n}u_n L_{1n}u$  in  $L_2$  (cf. the proof of Theorem 3.2.3), so that  $L_1u=f$ .

Now, the equation  $Lu + \lambda u = f$  is equivalent to the equation

$$L_0 u + (\lambda - \lambda_0) u = f (L_0 = L + \lambda_0 I)$$

which is, in turn equivalent to



$$u + (\lambda - \lambda_0) L_0^{-1} u = L_0^{-1} f$$

As an operator on  $H_2^2 \cap H_{20}^1$ ,  $L_0^{-1}u$  is compact, since weak convergence in  $H_2^2$  implies strong convergence in  $L_2$ . The theorem follows from the Riesz theory of compact linear operators.

 $\frac{3.h. \text{ Holder continuity.}}{\text{then the solutions u obtained in the preceding section } \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{C}^{2} + \mathbf{\mu}(\mathbf{G}))$  and the coefficients and f & C (G), \( \Lambda \) Our method is to reduce the problem by regular mappings of class C of neighborhoods or boundary neighborhoods of each point onto spheres B or hemispheres G , as described in the proof of Theorem 3.3.1, so that  $\mathbf{a}^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \mathbf{\delta}^{\alpha\beta}$ , and then prove local differentiability.

To prove the local differentiability, we assume that u is a solution in  $H_2^2(\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{Q}_0})$  of (3.1.1). For  $0 < \mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{R}_0$ , we define

(3.4.1) 
$$v_R = P_R(-\Lambda u)$$
,  $H_R = u - u_R$ , (so  $u = u_R + H_R$ )

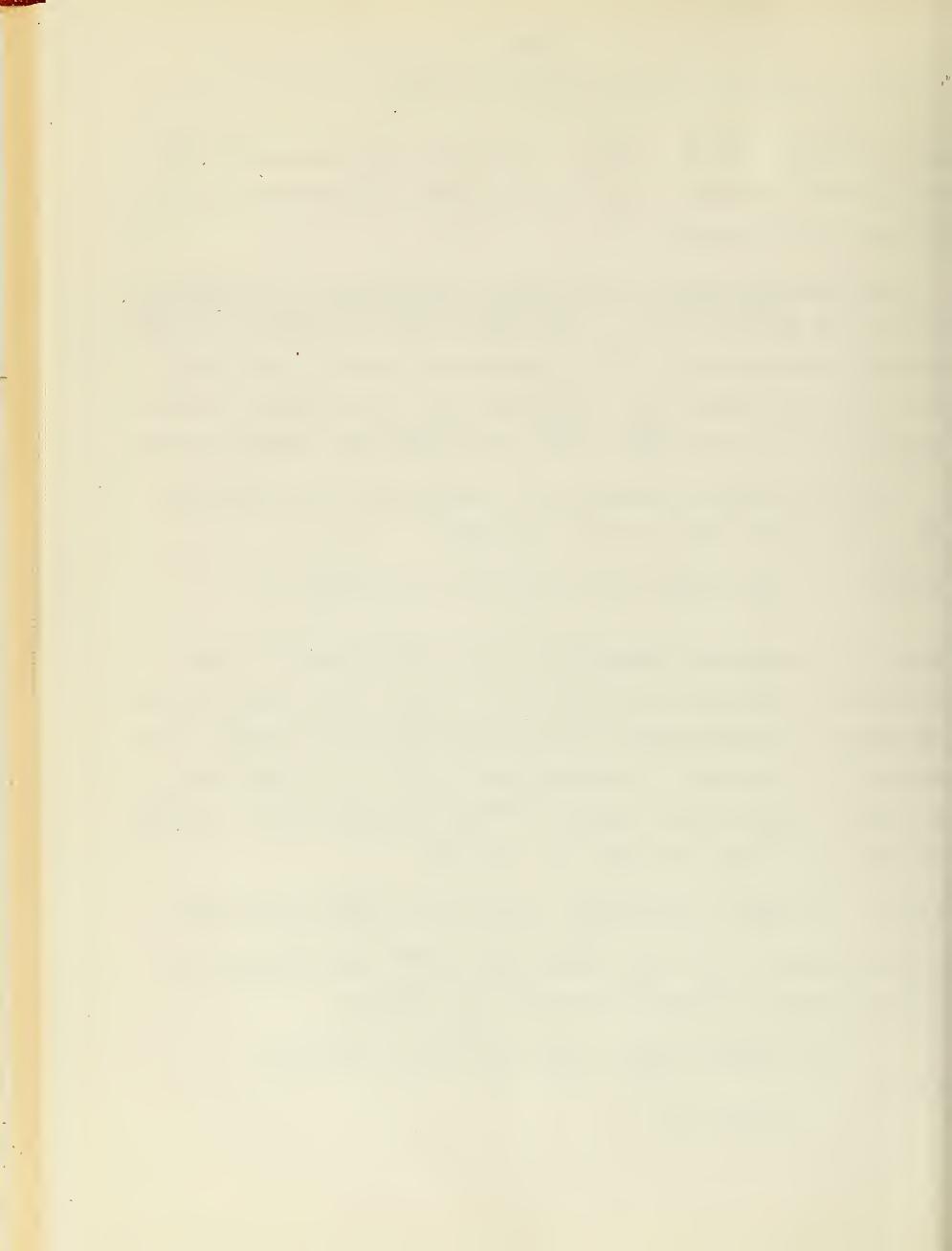
where  $-P_{\rm R}({\bf f})$  denotes the potential of  ${\bf f}$  as defined by (2.6.10). In case  ${\bf v}=2$ ,  $-P_{\rm R}({\bf f})$  differs from the potential of  ${\bf f}$  by that constant chosen so that its average is 0; this gets rid of the log term in the bound for  $\|{\bf u}\|_{2,{\bf R}}^0$  (see Theorem 2.7.3). We regard  ${\bf u}$  as known, whence  ${\bf u}_{\rm R}$  and  ${\bf H}_{\rm R}$  are known and  ${\bf H}_{\rm R}$  is harmonic. We then define the space  ${\bf v}_{\rm R}^{2+\mu}({\bf H}_{\rm R})$  to consist of all  ${\bf u}\in {\bf H}_{2}^{2}({\bf H}_{\rm R})$  such that  ${\bf u}\in {\bf C}^{2+\mu}({\bf H}_{\rm R})$  for each  ${\bf v}<{\bf R}$  with norm

(3.4.2) 
$$\| u \|_{R}^{2+\mu} = \max [' \| u \|_{2,R}^{2}, \sup (R - r)^{\tau+\mu} h_{\mu} (\nabla^{2} u, B_{r})] (\gamma = \sqrt{2})$$

We first note that if  $H_R \in H_{2,R}^2$ , then it also  $\in C_R^{2+\mu}$ . Then, regarding  $H_R$  as known, we obtain an operator equation for  $u_R$  as follows:

$$u_{R} = P_{R}(-\Delta u) = P_{R}(Lu) + P_{R}[(a - a_{0}) \cdot \overline{V}^{2}u + b \cdot \overline{V}u + cu]$$

$$= T_{R}(u_{R}) + V_{R}$$



where

(3.4.4) 
$$T_{R}(u_{R}) = P_{R}[a - a_{O}) \cdot \nabla^{2}u_{R} + b \cdot \nabla u_{R} + cu_{R}],$$

$$V_{R} = P_{R}(\vec{r}) + P_{R}[(a - a_{O}) \cdot \nabla^{2}H_{R} + b \cdot \nabla H_{R} + cH_{R}].$$

in which  $v_R$  is known and  $v_R^2$  or  $v_C^{2+\mu}$  according as  $f \in L_2$  or to  $C^\mu$ . It is then shows that if R is small enough, the norm of  $T_R$  is  $\leq 1/2$  as an operator in either space. Thus, if R is small enough, the equation (3.4.3) has a unique solution  $u_R$  in  $H_2^2$  for each  $v_R$  in  $H_2^2$  and also one in  $v_R^2$  for each  $v_R$  in  $v_R^2$  and  $v_R$  in  $v_R^2$  and  $v_R$  in  $v_R^2$  for each  $v_R$  in  $v_R^2$ . Thus, if  $v_R$  and  $v_R$  is any solution of (3.1.1) in  $v_R^2$  ( $v_R$ ), then  $v_R$  is  $v_R^2$  and  $v_R$ . A corresponding program is possible for functions  $v_R$  on  $v_R$  which vanish along  $v_R$ .

We define the auxiliary space  ${}^*\mathcal{C}^{\mu}_R$  to consist of all f  $\epsilon$   $L_2(\mathbb{B}_R)$  such that f  $\epsilon$   $\mathfrak{C}^1(\mathbb{B}_R)$  for each r < R and for which

\* 
$$\| f \|_{R}^{\mu} = \max [\| f \|_{2,R}^{0}, \sup (R - r)^{\gamma + \iota} h_{\mu}(f, B_{r})] < \infty$$
.

LEMMA 3.1.1: If H is harmonic and  $\varepsilon H_2^1(\mathbb{G}_R)$  and vanishes along  $o_R$  and if H is extended to the lower hall of  $B_R$  by formula (3.2.2), then H is harmonic on  $B_R$  and  $\varepsilon H_2^1(B_R)$ ; if H  $\varepsilon H_2^2(G_R)$ , then H  $\varepsilon H_2^2(B_R)$ .

Proof: For if  $V \in C_{C}^{1}(B_{R})$ , then

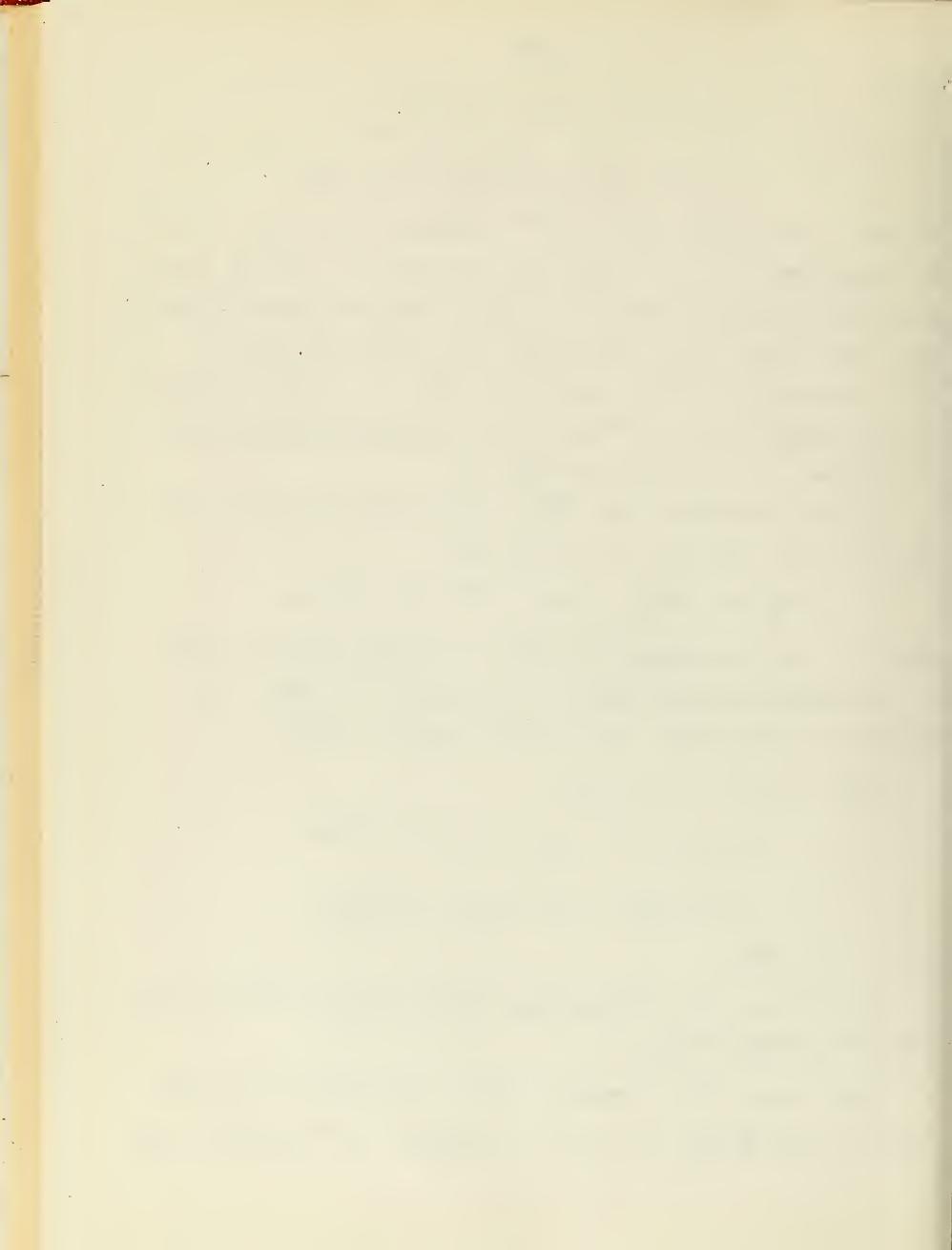
$$\int_{B_R} v_{,\alpha} H_{,\alpha} dx = \int_{G_R} w_{,\alpha} H_{,\alpha} dx = 0$$
, where

$$w(x^{\mathbf{V}}, x^{\mathbf{I}}) = v(x^{\mathbf{V}}, x^{\mathbf{I}}) - v(-x^{\mathbf{V}}, x^{\mathbf{I}})$$

and w = 0 on  $\partial G_R$ .

THEOREM 3.4.1: If H is harmonic and  $\varepsilon H_2^2(B_R)$ , then H  $\varepsilon C^{2+\mu}(B_R)$  and  $\|H\|_R^{2+\mu} \le C(\mu,\nu)^{\frac{1}{2}}\|H\|_{2,R}^2$ .

PROOF. Since  $\sqrt{2}H$  is harmonic, it follows from Exercise 2, § 1.2, that  $|\nabla^3 H(x)| \leq C(\gamma) \cdot ||\nabla^2 H||_{2,R}^0 \cdot (R - |x|)^{-\tau-1} \leq C||H||_{2,R}^2 \cdot (R - r)^{-\tau-\mu} (r-|x|)^{\mu-1}, x \in B_r$ 



from which the result follows as in the proof of Theorem 1.

THEORNI 3.4.2: The transformation  $u = P_R(f)$  is a bounded operator from into  $C_R^{2+\mu}$  with bounded independent of R.

Proof:  $P_R(f) \in H_2^2(B_R)$  with  $\|P_R(f)\|_{2,R}^2 \le C \|f\|_{2,R}^0$  by Theorem 2.6.2 and our definition when  $\sqrt{2} = 2$ . For each r with 0 < r < R, let r' = (r + R)/2 and let  $f_1(x) = f(x)$  on  $B_{r'}$ ,  $f_1(x) = 0$  elsewhere,  $f_2(x) = f(x) - f_1(x)$ , and let  $u_k = P_R(f_k)$  for k = 1, 2. Then from the corollary to Theorem 1.5.4, it follows that  $u_l \in C^{2+1}(\overline{E}_{r'})$  with

(3.1.5) 
$$h_{1}(\nabla^{2}u_{1}, B_{r}) \leq C_{1}(\mu, \mu, h) \cdot h_{1}(f, B_{r}) \leq C_{2}(R-r)^{-\tau-\mu} K, K = \|f\|_{R}^{\mu}.$$
Since  $f_{2} = 0$  in  $B_{r}$ ,  $u_{2}$  is harmonic there and  $u_{2} \in H_{2}^{2}(B_{r})$  with 
$$\|u_{2}\|_{2,r}^{2} \leq C_{3}\|f\|_{2,R}^{0}$$

From Theorem 3.4.1, it follows that  $u_2 \in C^{2+\mu}(B_r)$  with

(3.4.6) 
$$h_{\mu}(\nabla^{2}u_{2}, B_{r}) \leq C_{\mu}(\mu, \sqrt{K} R_{r})^{-\tau-\mu}, K = * ||f||_{R}^{\mu}.$$

The result follows from (3.4.5) and (3.4.6)

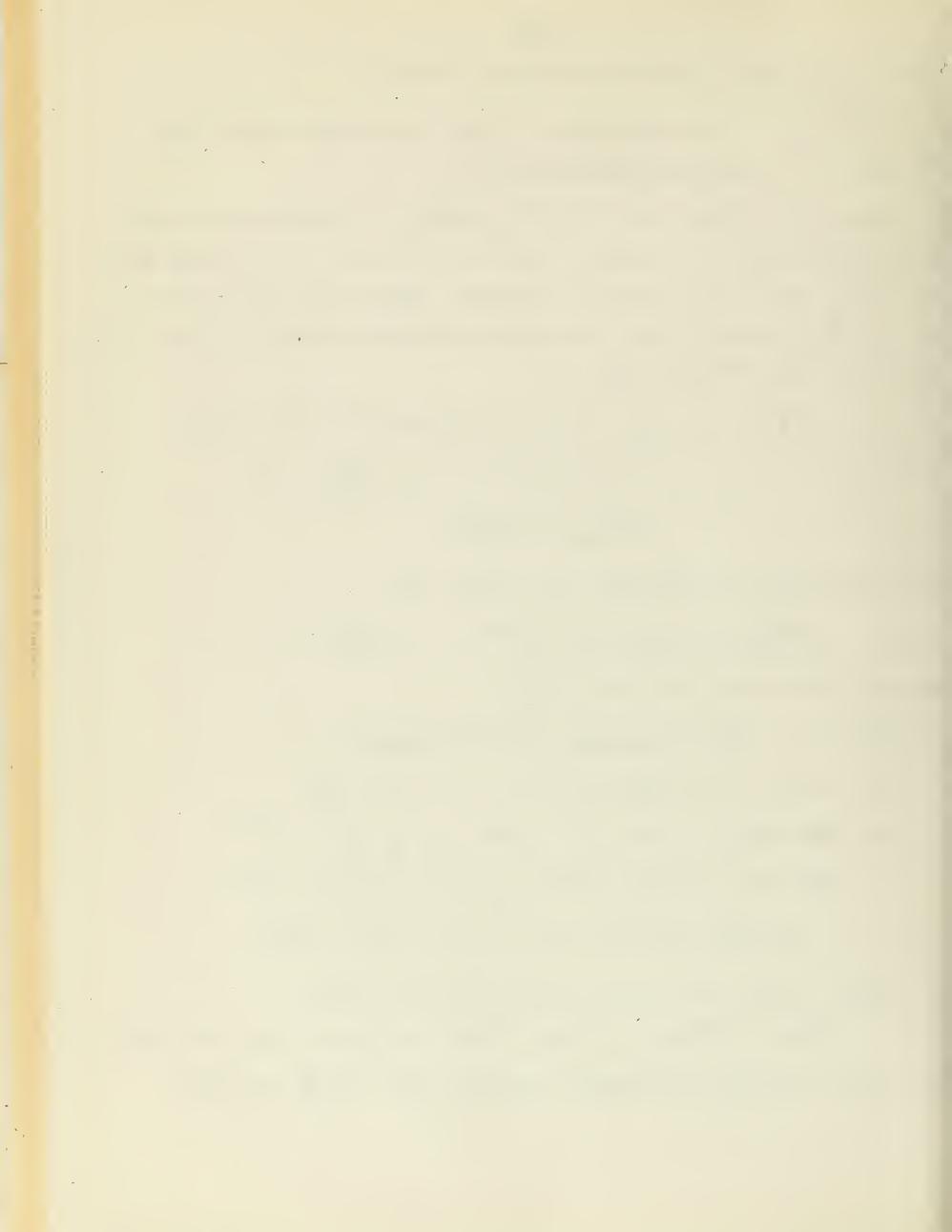
LEPMA 3.4.2: There are constants  $G_k(\mu, \mathbf{v})$  such that

(a) 
$$\| f \|_{r}^{0} \le C_{1}^{*} \| f \|_{R}^{L} \cdot (R - r)^{-\tau}, 0 < r < R, f \in C_{R}^{L}$$

(b) 
$$\|\nabla^{2}u(x)\|_{r}^{0} \leq C_{1}K \cdot (R-r)^{-T}$$
,  $h_{\mu}(\nabla u, B_{r}) \leq C_{2}K(R-r)^{1-T-\mu}$ ,  $\|\nabla u(x)\|_{r}^{0} \leq C_{3}KR^{\mu}(R-r)^{1-T-\mu}$ ,  $h_{\mu}(u, B_{r}) \leq C_{1}R(R-r)^{1-T-\mu}$ ,  $\|u(x)\|_{r}^{0} \leq C_{5}KR^{1+\mu}(R-r)^{1-T-\mu}$ ,  $0 < r < R$ ,  $u \in C_{R}^{2+\mu}$ .

Proof: We prove (b); the proof of (a) is similar. Writing

$$\nabla^2 u(x) = \nabla^2 u(\xi) - [\nabla^2 u(\xi) - \nabla^2 u(x)], x \in B_r, \xi \in B(x, \rho), \rho = (R-r)/2$$
 and applying the Schwarz and Minkowski Inequalities over  $B(x, \rho)$ , we obtain



$$\gamma \sqrt{1/2} p^{\gamma} |\nabla^2 u(x)| \le ||\nabla^2 u||_{R}^{Q} + K p^{-\tau - \mu} \gamma \sqrt{1/2} p^{2} p^{\mu}$$

from which the inequality for  $\|\nabla^2 \mathbf{u}\|_{\mathbf{r}}^0$  follows. Since

$$|\nabla^2 u(x)| \leq C_1 K \cdot (R - |x|)^{-\tau} \leq C_1 K (R - r)^{1-\tau-\mu} (r - |x|)^{\mu-1}, x \in B_r,$$

the result for  $h_1(\nabla u, B_r)$  follows (see the proof of Theorem 1.5.4). maining inequalities follow by using similar tricks.

THEOREM 3.4.3: Suppose  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , and  $c \in C^{\mu}(\overline{B}_{R})$  with  $a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$ . Then there is a number  $R_1$  with  $0 < R_1 < R_0$  such that if  $0 < R < R_1$ , f  $\epsilon$  \*C"(B<sub>R</sub>), u  $\epsilon$  H<sub>2</sub>(R<sub>R</sub>) and u is a solution of (3.1.1) on B<sub>R</sub>, then uε \*C<sup>2+1</sup>(B<sub>R</sub>) and

$$\| \| \| \|_{R}^{2+\mu} \le C[ \| \| \| \|_{R}^{\mu} + \| \| \| \|_{2,R}^{2} ]$$

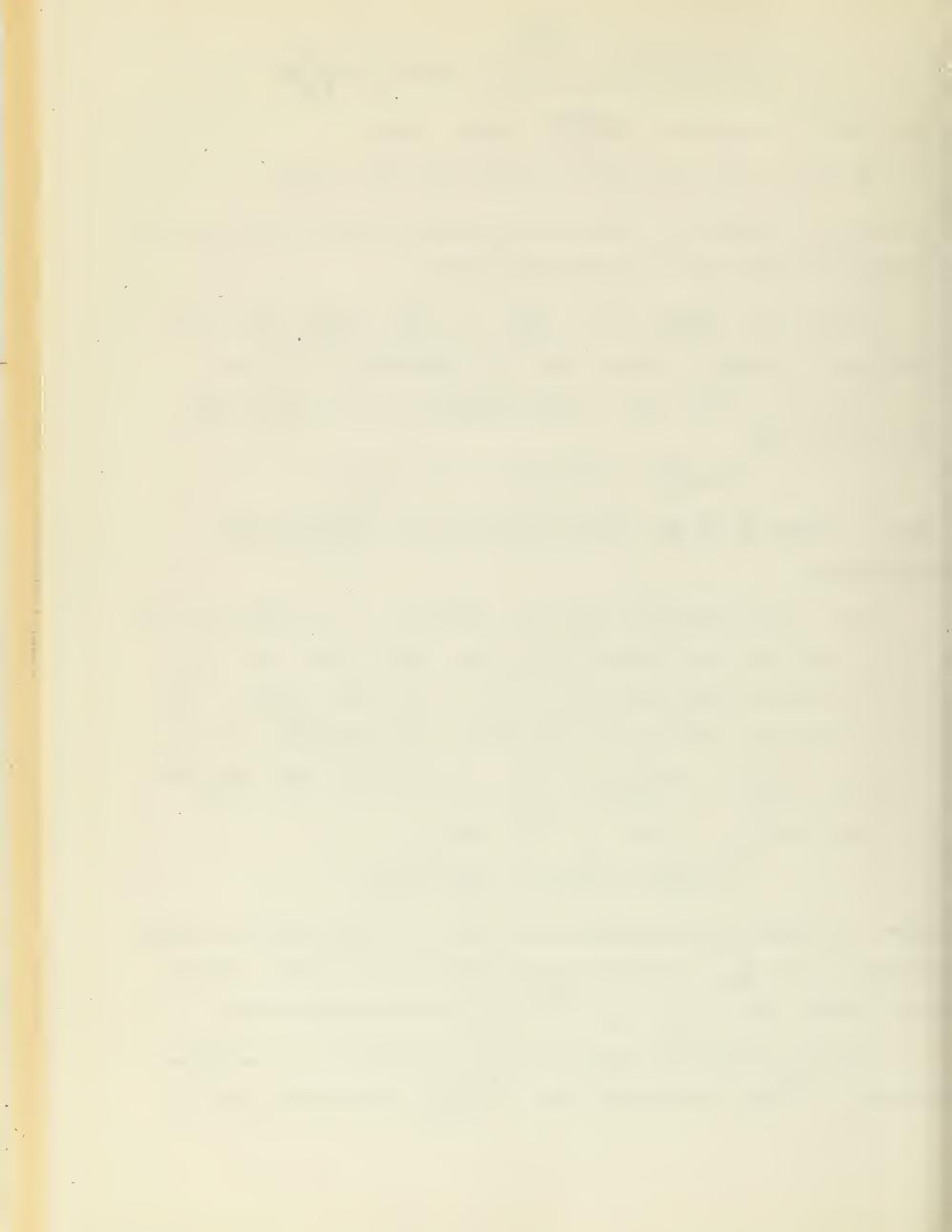
where C depends on \mu, \psi, and the bounds and Holder constants of the coefficients.

<u>Proof</u>: As an operator on  $H_2^2(B_R)$  and  $*C^{2+\mu}(B_R)$ ,  $T_R$  is easily seen from (3.4.4), Lemma 3.4.2, and Theorem 3.4.2, to have a bound  $\leq$  CR<sup>tt</sup> for R  $\leq$  R<sub>O</sub> and so its bound in either space is  $\leq 1/2$  if  $0 < R \leq$  some  $R_1 \leq R_0$ . Thus if  $f \in {}^*C^{\mu}$ ,  $P_R(f) \in {}^*C^{2+\mu}$  with  ${}^*|||P_Rf|||^{2+\mu} \leq C_1(\mu, -1)^*|||f|||^{\mu}$ . Moreover  $\| u_{R} \|_{2,R}^{2} \le \| u \|_{2,R}^{2}$  so  $\| H_{R} \|_{2,R}^{2} \le 2' \| u \|_{2,R}^{2}$  so  $H_{R} \in {}^{*}C_{R}^{2+\mu}$  with  $\| H_{R} \|_{2+\mu}^{2+\mu}$  $\leq C_2(\mu, \gamma) \cdot \|\mathbf{u}\|_{2,R}^2$ , so that  $\mathbf{v}_R \in C_R^{2+\mu}$  with

$$\| \| \| \|_{R}^{2+\mu} \le C_{1}^{*} \| \| \| \|_{R}^{\mu} + C_{3}^{\mu} \| \| \| \|_{2,R}^{2}$$

where  $C_3$  depends on the quantities stated. If  $0 < R \le R_3$ , there is a unique solution  $u_R$  in  $H_{2,R}^2$  of equation (3.4.3) and also one in  $C_R^{2+\mu}$ , so these must coincide. Thus  $u = u_R + H_R \epsilon^* C^{2+\mu}(B_A)$  and the inequality holds.

A similar program can be carried through on hemispheres  $\, {\tt G}_{\!R} \,$  . We define the space  ${}^*C^{2^{*}L}(G_{\widehat{R}})$  to consist of all  $u \in H_2^2(G_{\widehat{R}})$  which vanish along  $o_{\widehat{R}}$ 



and have finite norm as defined by (3.4.2) with  $G_r$  replacing  $B_r$ . We define the space  ${}^*C^{l}G_R)$  as before with  $G_r$  replacing  $B_r$ ; we do not require f to be zero along  $\sigma_R^*$ . We define

 $u = P_R(f)$  for  $f \in G_R$  by

$$-u(x) = \int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} [K_{0}(x - \xi) - K_{0}(x' - \xi)] f(\xi) d, ((x'', x')' = (-x'', x''))$$

$$= \int_{B_{\mathbb{R}}} K_{0}(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi - 2 \int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} K_{0}(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi,$$

where f is extended to  $G_{\overline{R}}$  by the formula

(3.4.8) 
$$f(x^{1}, x_{1}) = f(-x^{1}, x_{2})$$
 for  $x^{1} < 0$ .

Then  $T_R$  is defined by (3.4.4).

THEOREM 3.4.4: (a) If H is harmonic, H  $\epsilon$  H<sub>2</sub>(G<sub>R</sub>), and H vanishes along  $\sigma_R$ , then H  $\epsilon$  \*C<sup>2+ $\mu$ </sup>(G<sub>R</sub>) and

\* 
$$\| H \|_{\mathbb{R}}^{2+\mu} \le C(\mu, \gamma') \| H \|_{2, \mathbb{R}}^2$$
.

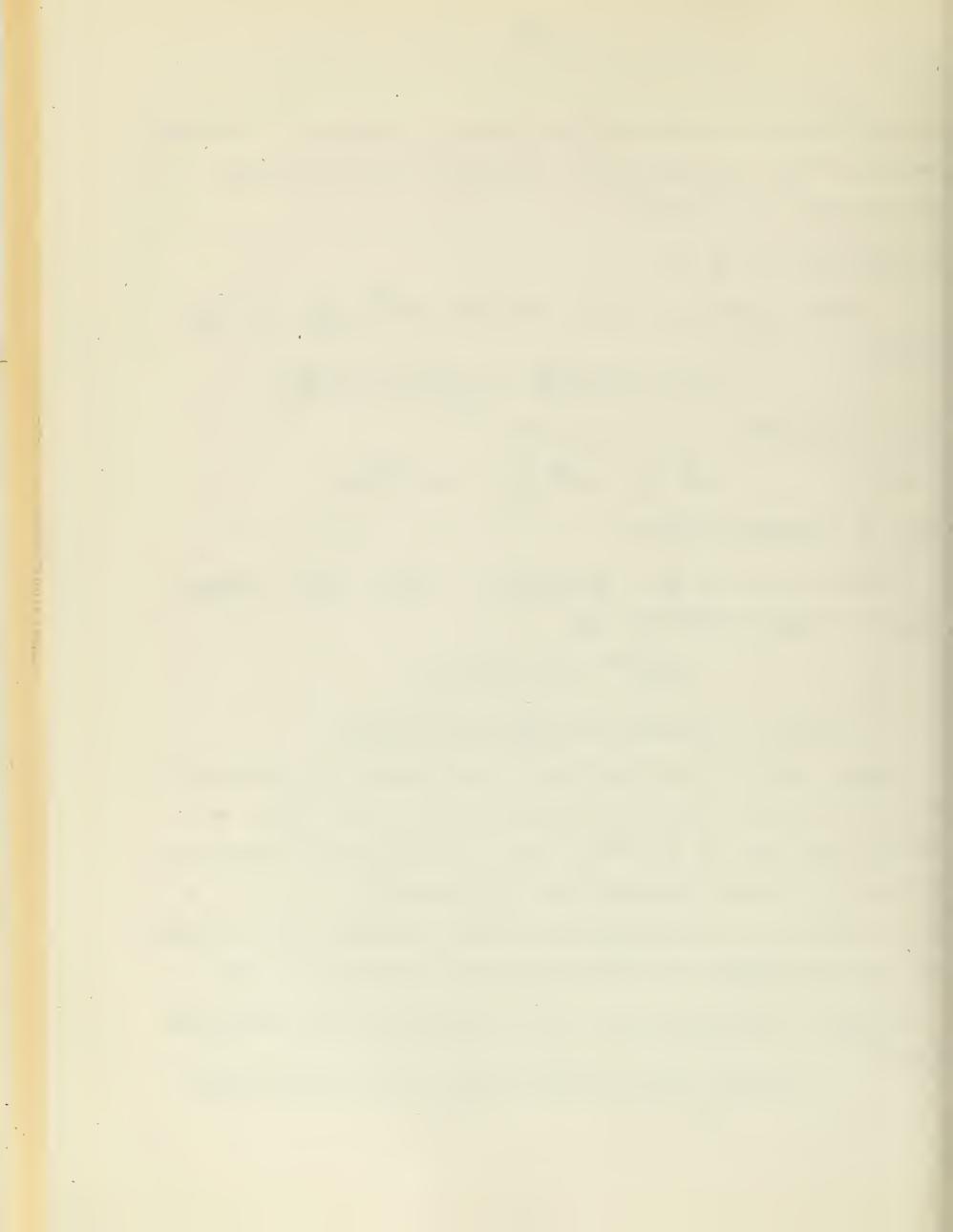
## (b) Theorem 3.1.2 holds with the current interpretation.

<u>Proof:</u> Part (a) follows from Lemma 3.4.1 and Theorem 3.4.1. To prove (b), we note from (3.4.7), (3.4.8), and Theorem 2.6.2 that  $P_R(u) \in H_2^2(\mathbb{G}_R)$  and u vanishes along  $\sigma_R$ . If  $f \in {}^*C^L(\mathbb{G}_R)$ , then  $f \in {}^*C^L(\mathbb{B}_R)$  so the inequalities hold for it. To handle the integral over  $\mathbb{G}_R$ , we break up  $f = f_1 + f_2$  as before and let  $u_k$  be the corresponding integral. As before,  $u_2$  is harmonic on  $\mathbb{F}_r$ , and so satisfies the desired inequalities. Finally, if  $\alpha < \gamma$ 

$$-u_{1,\alpha\beta\gamma}(x) = -2f(x) \int_{G_{r}^{-1}} K_{0,\alpha\beta\gamma}(x-\xi) d\xi - 2 \int_{G_{r}^{-1}} K_{0,\alpha\beta\gamma}(x-\xi) [f(\xi)-f(x)] d\xi$$

$$(3.4.8)$$

$$= 2f(x) \int_{G_{r}^{-1}} K_{0,\beta\gamma}(x-\xi) d\xi - 2 \int_{G_{r}^{-1}} K_{0,\alpha\beta\gamma}(x-\xi) [f(\xi)-f(x)] d\xi$$



so that

$$|u_{1,\alpha\beta\gamma}(x)| \leq C_{1}K \cdot (R-r)^{-\tau}(r'-|x|)^{-1} + C_{2}K(R-r)^{-\tau-\mu}(x^{\nu})^{\mu-1}$$

$$\leq CK(R-r)^{-\tau-\mu}[d(x,\partial G_{r})]^{\mu-1}, \quad \text{if} \quad \alpha < \lambda.$$

But, since  $u_1$  is harmonic, the same inequality holds for  $u_1, vvv$ . The bound on  $h_1(\nabla^2 u, G_r)$  follows as in the proof of Theorem 1.

LEAMA 3.4.3: The inequalities of Lemma 3.4.2 hold.

THEORI 3.4.5: Theorem 3.4.3 holds with  $B_R$  replaced by  $G_R$ , provided we assume also that u = 0 along  $\sigma_R$ .

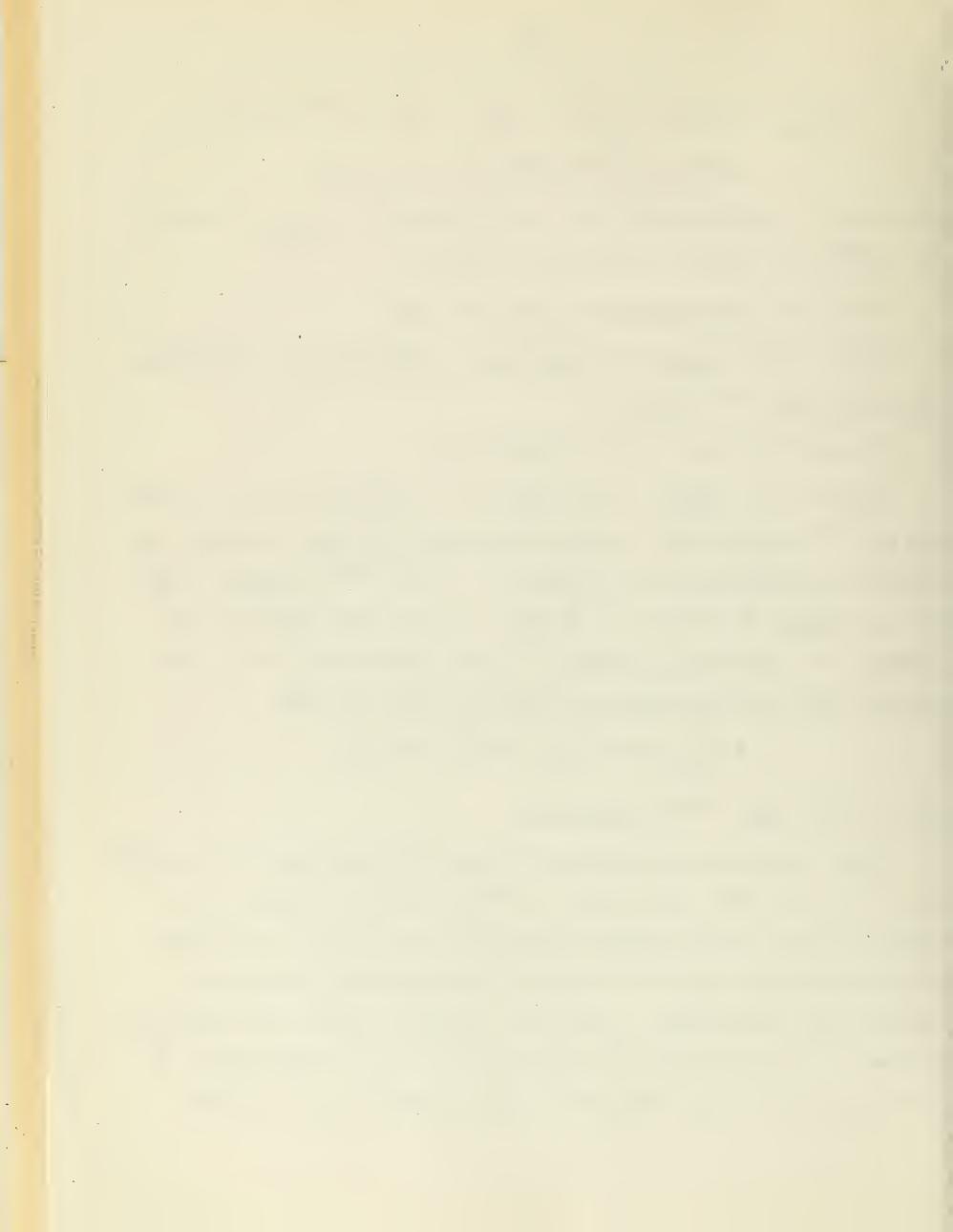
The proof is the same as that of Theorem 3.4.3.

THEOREM 3.4.6: Suppose G is of class  $C^{2+\mu}$ , the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , and  $c \in C^{\mu}(\overline{G})$ , and the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$  satisfy (3.1.2). Then the conclusions of Theorem 3.3.3 hold. In addition any solution of (3.1.1) in which  $f \in C^{\mu}(\overline{G}) \in C^{2+\mu}(\overline{G})$  whether  $\lambda \in \mathcal{B}$  or not. Finally, if c(x) < 0 on  $\overline{G}$ , then  $\lambda_0$  may be taken equal to 0 in Theorem 3.3.3, and there is a constant C, which depends only on G,  $\mu$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\lambda$ , and the bounds and Holder constants of the coefficients, such that

$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{2,\mathbf{G}}^2 \leq \mathbf{C} \| \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u} \|_{2,\mathbf{G}}^0 , \| \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{G}}^{2+\mu} \leq \mathbf{C} \| \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{G}}^{\mu}$$

for  $u \in H_2^2(G)$  and  $C^{2+\mu}(\overline{G})$ , respectively.

Proof: The proofs of the first two statements have been given. If  $u \in H_2^2(\overline{G})$  and  $Lu + \lambda u = 0$  with  $\lambda \geq 0$ , then  $u \in C^{2+\mu}(G)$ . But if  $c(x) \leq 0$ , we conclude from the Maximum Principle (Theorem 1.6.2) that u = 0. To see that the constant exists, suppose the contrary. Then there exists a sequence of operators  $L_n$  and functions  $u_n$  such that  $\|u_n\|_2^2 = 1$ ,  $u_n \longrightarrow \text{in } H_2^2, c_n(x) \leq 0$  for each n, and the  $a_n^{G\beta} \longrightarrow a_n^{G\beta}$ ,  $b_n^{G} \longrightarrow b_n^{G}$ , and  $c_n \longrightarrow c$  uniformly on  $\overline{G}$ , and  $L_n u_n \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_2$ . Then, since  $L_n u_n \longrightarrow L_n$  in  $L_2$ , we see that



Lu = 0, so u = 0. But then  $u_n \longrightarrow u$  in  $L_2$  so  $\|u_n\|_2^2 \longrightarrow 0$  on account of Theorem 3.3.1.

Now, suppose Lu  $\epsilon$   $C^1(\overline{G})$ . From Theorems 3.4.3 and 3.4.5 and the argument in the first paragraph of the proof of Theorem 3.3.1, it follows that there is a constant C, depending only on the quantities stated, and that each point of  $\overline{G}$  is in a neighborhood or boundary neighborhood N such that

$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathrm{I}}^{2+\mu} \le C[\| \mathbf{L}\mathbf{u} \|_{\mathrm{G}}^{\mu} + \| \mathbf{u} \|_{2, \mathrm{G}}^{2}]$$

The second result then follows.

REMARKS: Local differentiability properties analogous to those stated in Theorem 3.2.4 hold.

3.5. Higher differentiability. In this section, we show that additional differentiability of the coefficients and of f near an interior point implies additional differentiability of any solution u of (3.1.1); and if the point is on 3G and u vanishes along a smooth part of 3G, then u possesses additional differentiability in a boundary neighborhood. We begin by proving this for spheres or hemispheres and pass to the general case by mappings. The method of proof in these special cases involves boundedness theorems and the difference quotient procedure of § 3.2.

LHMA 3.5.1: Suppose  $u \in H_2^2(B_R)$ , or  $u \in H_2^2(G_R)$  and vanishes along  $\sigma_R$ .

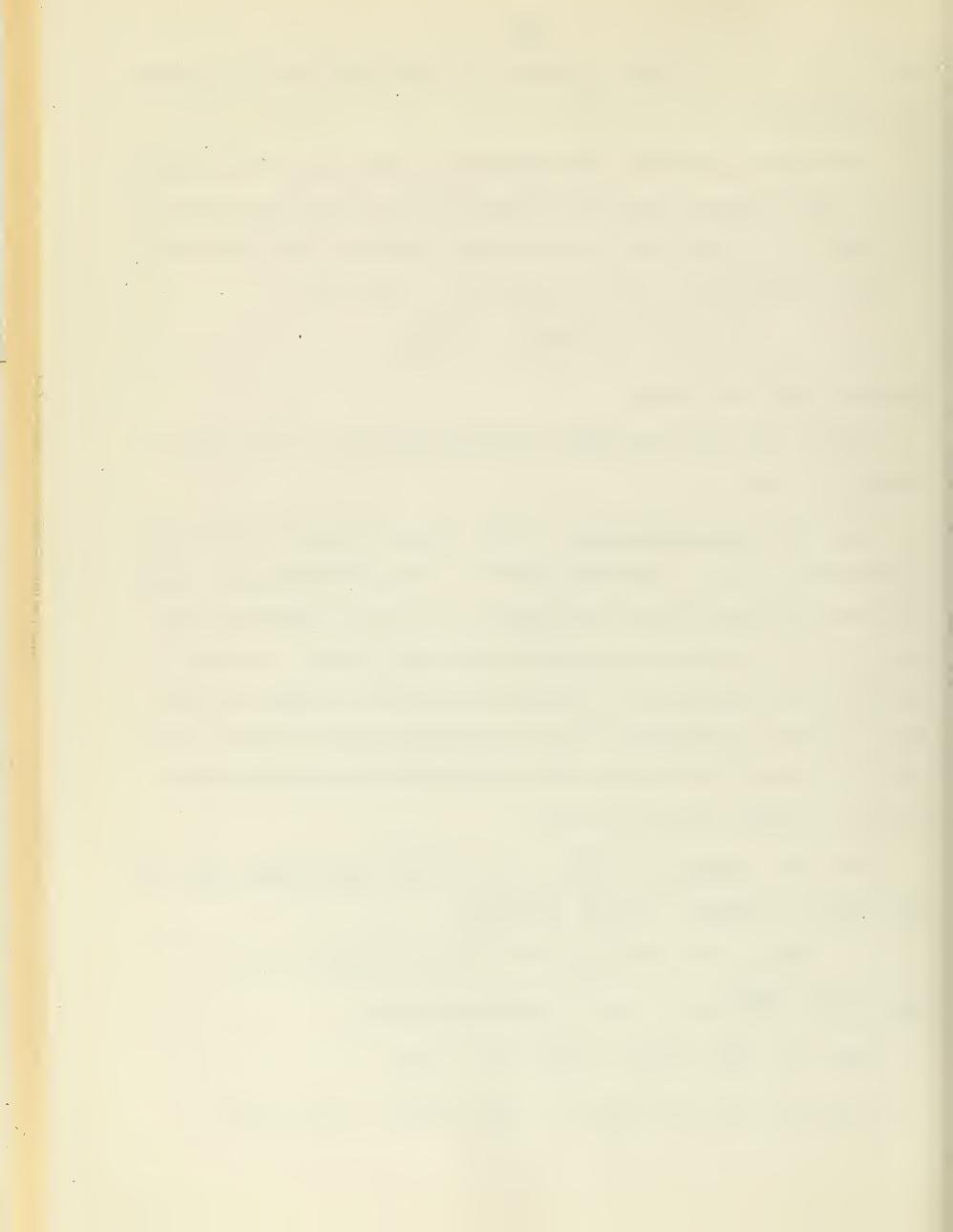
Then there is a constant  $C = C(\sqrt{\epsilon})$  such that

$$\|\nabla u\|_{r} \le \varepsilon (R - r) \|\bar{v}^{2}u\|_{R} + C \varepsilon^{-1} (R - r)^{-1} \|u\|_{R}, 0 < \varepsilon \le 1$$

where  $\|\varphi\|_{\mathbf{r}} = \|\varphi\|_{2}^{0}$  on  $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{r}}$  or  $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{r}}$  as the case may be.

Proof: Let  $\zeta(x) = h[(|x| - r)/(R - r)]$ . Then

$$\int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} |\nabla u|^2 dx = \int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} \overline{u}_{,\alpha} (\zeta^2 u_{,\alpha}) dx = -\int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} \overline{u} \cdot (\zeta^2 \Delta u + 2\zeta \zeta_{,\alpha} u_{,\alpha}) dx$$



for any n>0 . The result follows by transposing the term  $\frac{1}{2}\|\zeta\nabla u\|_R^2$  to the left side and noticing that

$$\|\nabla u\|_{r} \leq \|\zeta \nabla u\|_{R}$$
.

LETMA 3.5.2: Suppose that  $u \in H_2^2(B_R)$  with  $\Lambda(u) \subset B_R$ , or  $u \in H_2^2(G_R)$  with  $\Lambda(u) \subset B_R$  and u vanishes along  $\sigma_R$ . Then  $\|\nabla^2 u\|_2^0 = \|-\Delta u\|_2^0$ 

Proof: We first prove this for  $B_R$ . Let  $\widetilde{u}$  be the Fourier transform of u:

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{y}) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}/2 \int_{\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}}} e^{i\mathbf{x}\cdot\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Then (3.5.1) follows from the Plancherel theorem. The theorem follows for  $G_R$  by reflecting u across  $\sigma_R$  by formula (3.3.2).

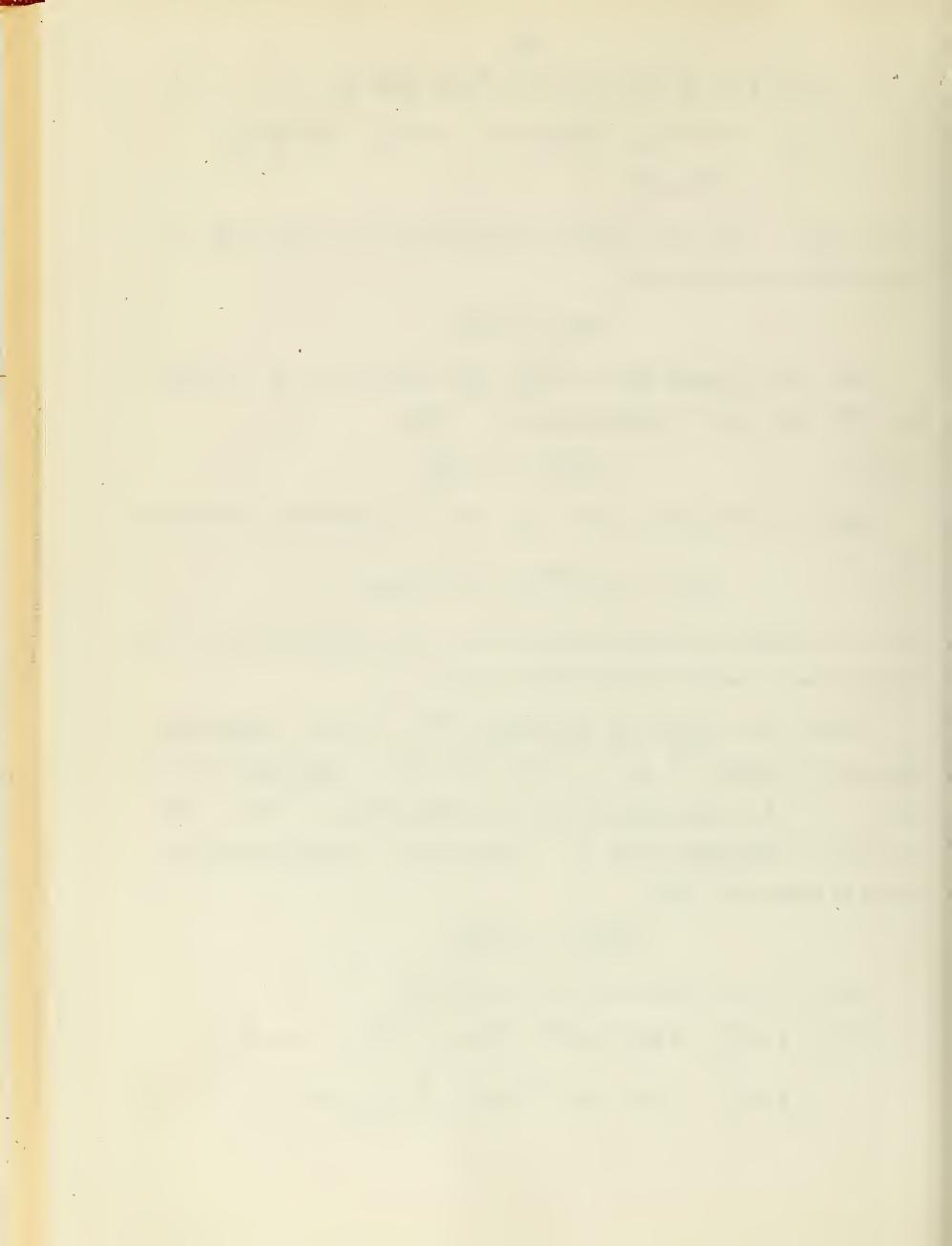
THEOREM 3.5.1: Suppose the coefficients  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$  and c satisfy the hypotheses of section 3.3 on  $B_{R_0}$  with  $a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$ . Then there is an  $R_1$  with  $0 < R_1 \le R_0$ , which depends only on the bounds for the  $b^{\alpha}$  and c and the moduli of continuity of the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ , such that if u satisfies the hypotheses of Lemma 3.5.2, then

$$\|\boldsymbol{\nabla}^2 \mathbf{u}\|_2^0 \leq 2\|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}\|_2^0$$

Proof: For, from Lemma 3.5.2, we conclude that

$$\|\nabla^{2}u\|_{2}^{0} = \|-\Delta u\|_{2}^{0} \le \|Lu\|_{2}^{0} + \|(a^{\alpha\beta} - a_{0}^{\alpha\beta})u_{,\alpha\beta} + b^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + cu\|_{2}^{0}$$

$$\le \|Lu\|_{2}^{0} + [\varepsilon(r) + \mathbb{R} + \mathbb{CR}^{2}] \|\nabla^{2}u\|_{2}^{0}, \lim_{R \to 0} \varepsilon(R) = 0$$



Clearly  $\varepsilon(R)$  + BR + CR<sup>2</sup>  $\leq 1/2$  if R is small.

THEOREM 3.5.2: Suppose the coefficients satisfy the conditions of Theorem 3.5.1 and  $0 < R < R_1$ . Suppose that (a)  $u \in L_2(B_R)$  and  $u \in H_2^2(B_r)$  for each r < R, or (b)  $u \in L_2(G_R)$  and  $u \in H_2^2(G_r)$  for each r < R and vanishes along  $\sigma_R$ . Then there is a  $C = C(\gamma)$  such that

(3.5.2) 
$$\|\nabla^2 u\|_r \le K(R - r)^{-2}, \|\nabla u\|_r \le K(R - r)^{-1}, \text{ where}$$

$$K = C \cdot [R^2 \| Lu \|_R + \| u \|_R]$$

Proof: It is sufficient to prove this for  $r \ge R/2$ . First choose  $r^1$ ,  $r < r^1 < R$ , and define

$$\zeta(x) = h[(|x| - r)/(r' - r)], U = \zeta u$$

Then U satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 3.5.1 and

(3.5.3) 
$$LU = \Delta u - 2a^{\alpha\beta} \zeta_{,\beta} u_{,\alpha} - (a^{\alpha\beta} \zeta_{,\alpha\beta} + b^{\alpha} \zeta_{,\alpha}) u$$

From Theorem 3.5.2 (and the fact that  $r' \leq R_1 \leq R_0$  and  $r \geq r^{1/2}$ ) we conclude that

$$(3.5.4) \|\nabla^{2}u\|_{r} \leq \|\nabla^{2}U\|_{r}, \leq 2[\|Lu\|_{r} + 3h_{1}\|\nabla u\|_{r}, \cdot (r' - r)^{-1} + \frac{3}{2}\zeta_{2}\|u\|_{r}, \cdot (r' - r)^{-2}]$$

$$\zeta_{2} = h_{2} + h_{1}\sqrt{2}$$

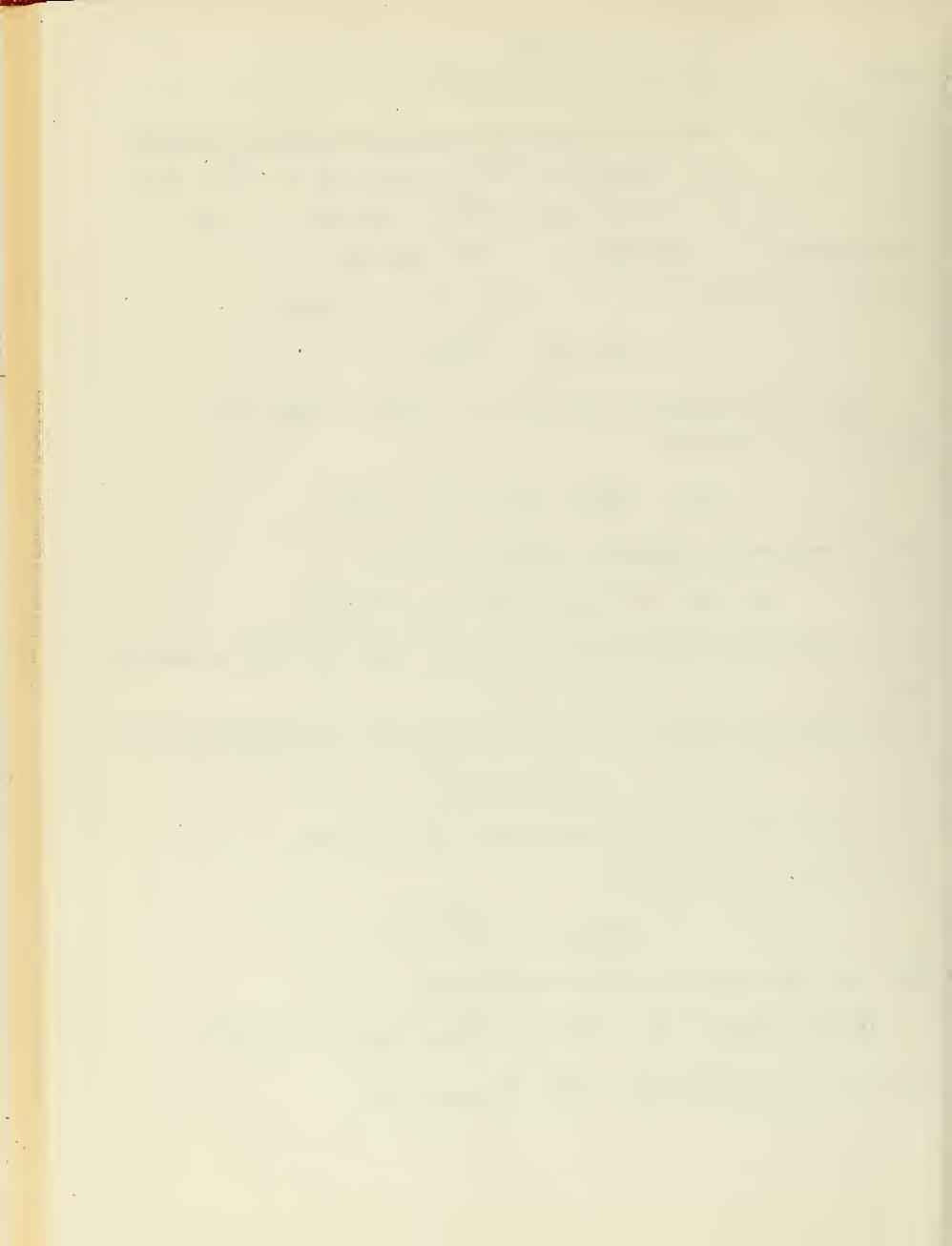
To prove (3.5.2), let R' be any number r < R' < R, let  $r' = r + \delta$ ,  $r'' = r + 2\delta$ ,  $R' = r + 3\delta$  and let

$$K_1 = \max_{0 < r < R'} (R' - r)^2 \|\nabla^2 u\|_r$$
.

Then from (3.5.4) and Lemma 3.5.1, we conclude that

$$\|\nabla^{2}u\|_{r} \leq 2[\|Lu\|_{r} + 3h_{1} \epsilon \|\nabla^{2}u\|_{r} + (\frac{3}{2}\zeta_{2} + 3h_{1}c\epsilon^{-1})\|u\|_{r}\delta^{-2}]$$

If we choose  $\varepsilon$  so that  $54h_1 \varepsilon \le 1/2$ , we conclude that



 $(R' - r)^2 \| \nabla^2 u \|_r \le \frac{1}{2} K_1 + 2 \| Lu \|_r R^2 + 18 (\frac{3}{2} \zeta_2 + 3h_1 C \varepsilon^{-1}) \| u \|_r$  Thus we obtain

 $\|\nabla^2 \mathbf{u}\|_{r} \leq K_1 \cdot (R^1 - r)^{-2}, K_1 = C_1[\|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{u}\|_{R} \cdot R^2 + \|\mathbf{u}\|_{R}]$ 

From Lemma 3.5.1, we conclude that (3.5.2) holds for R' with a fixed C independent of R'. We may then allow R'  $\longrightarrow$  R.

THEOREM 3.5.3: Suppose the coefficients and f satisfy the conditions above on  $B_R$  or  $G_R$  and, in addition, suppose  $0 < R \le R_1 \le R_0$  and that  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , and  $c \in C_1^0(B_R)$  or  $C_1^0(G_R)$  and  $f \in H_2^1(B_R)$  or  $H_2^1(G_R)$  as required below. Suppose that (a)  $u \in H_2^2(B_R)$  or (b)  $u \in H_2^2(G_R)$  and vanishes along  $\sigma_R$  and satisfies (3.1.1) with  $\lambda = 0$  in either case. Then  $u \in H_2^3(B_R)$  in (a) or  $H_2^3(G_R)$  in (b) for each r < R and the derivatives u, satisfy the differentiated equations.

<u>Proof:</u> We first prove this for  $B_R$ . Suppose 0 < r < R,  $3\delta = R - r$ ,  $r' = r + \delta$ ,  $r'' = r + 2\delta$ . Suppose  $1 \le \gamma \le v$ ,  $0 < |h| < \delta$ ,  $e_{\gamma}$  is the unit vector in the  $x^{\gamma}$  direction, and we define

$$u_{h}(x) = h^{-1}[u(x + he_{\gamma}) - u(x)]$$

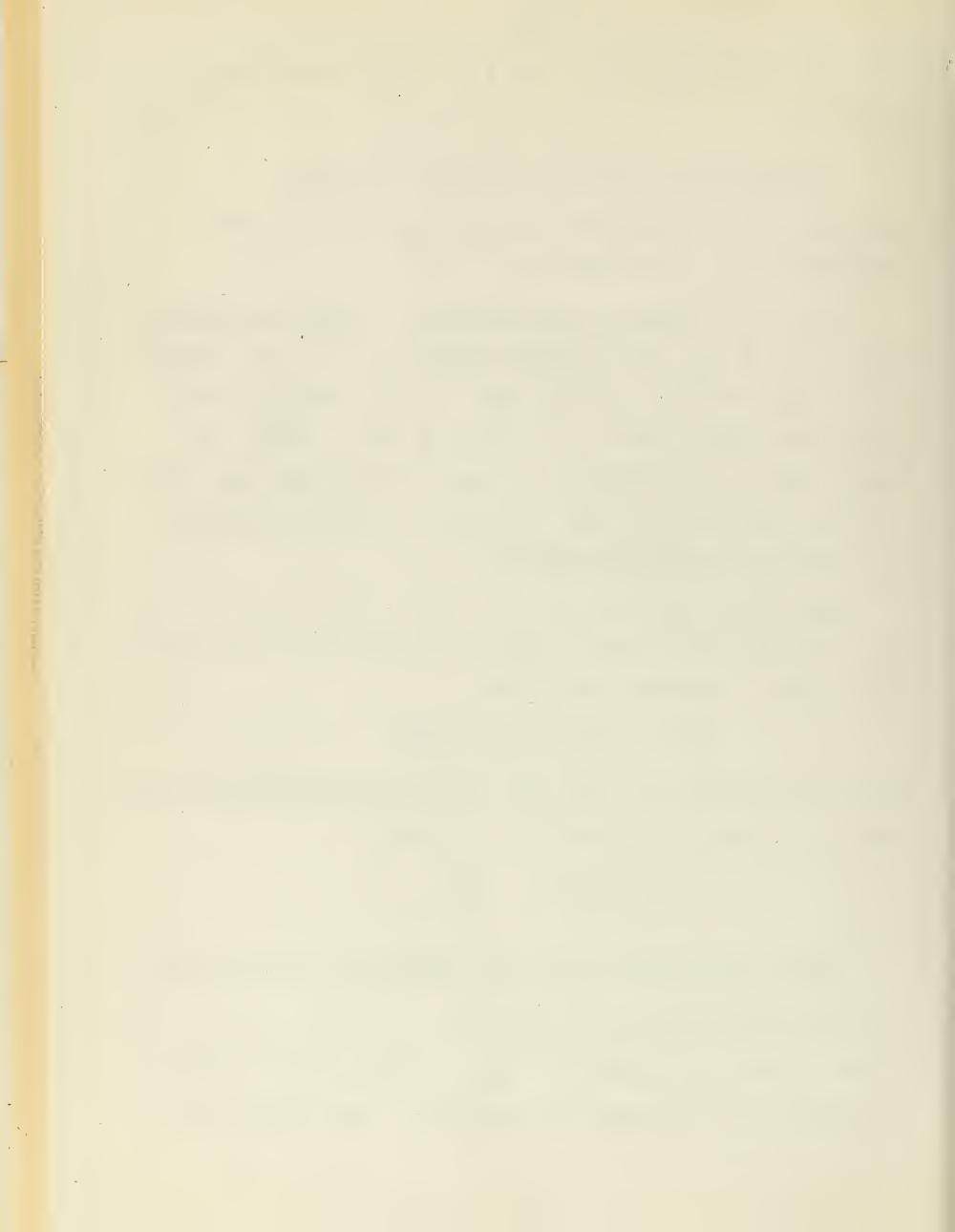
with similar definitions for  $a_h^{\alpha\beta}$ , etc. Forming the corresponding difference quotient of equation (3.1.1) with  $\lambda=0$ , we obtain

$$Lu_h(x) = F_h(x)$$
, where

(3.5.5)

 $F_h(x) = f_h(x) + a_h^{\alpha\beta}(x) u_{,\alpha\beta}(x + he_{\gamma}) + b_h^{\alpha}(x)u_{,\alpha}(x + he_{\gamma}) + c_h(x)u(x + he_{\gamma})$ From (3.5.5), Lemma 2.4.1, etc., we see that

(3.5.6)  $u_h \rightarrow u_{,\gamma}$ ,  $F_h \rightarrow F = f + a^{\alpha\beta}_{,\gamma} u_{,\alpha\beta} + b^{\alpha}_{,\gamma} u_{,\alpha} + c_{,\gamma} u$  in  $L_2(B_{r''})$ . Accordingly, we see from Theorem 3.5.2 that the  $u_h$  form a Cauchy family



in  $H_2^2(\mathbb{F}_r)$  which, from (3.5.6), must have u, as a limit. This proves the theorem for  $\mathbb{F}_r$ .

In the case of  $G_R$ , the procedure above applies for each  $\gamma \leq \sqrt{-1}$  over the whole of  $G_R$  and for  $\gamma = \mathbf{V}$  on any part of  $G_R$  where  $y \mathbf{V} \geq \varepsilon > 0$ . From this, we conclude that all the third derivatives except  $u_{,\mathcal{N},\mathcal{N},\mathcal{N}} \in L_2(G_r)$  for r < R and that  $u_{,\mathcal{N}}$  satisfies the differentiated equation on the interior of  $G_R$ . Since  $a^{\mathbf{V}}$  is nearly 1, we can solve for  $u_{,\mathcal{N},\mathcal{N},\mathcal{N}}$  in terms of the other derivatives, we see that it also  $\varepsilon$   $L_2(G_r)$  so that  $u_{,\mathcal{N}}$  also  $\varepsilon$   $H_2(G_r)$  for each r < R.

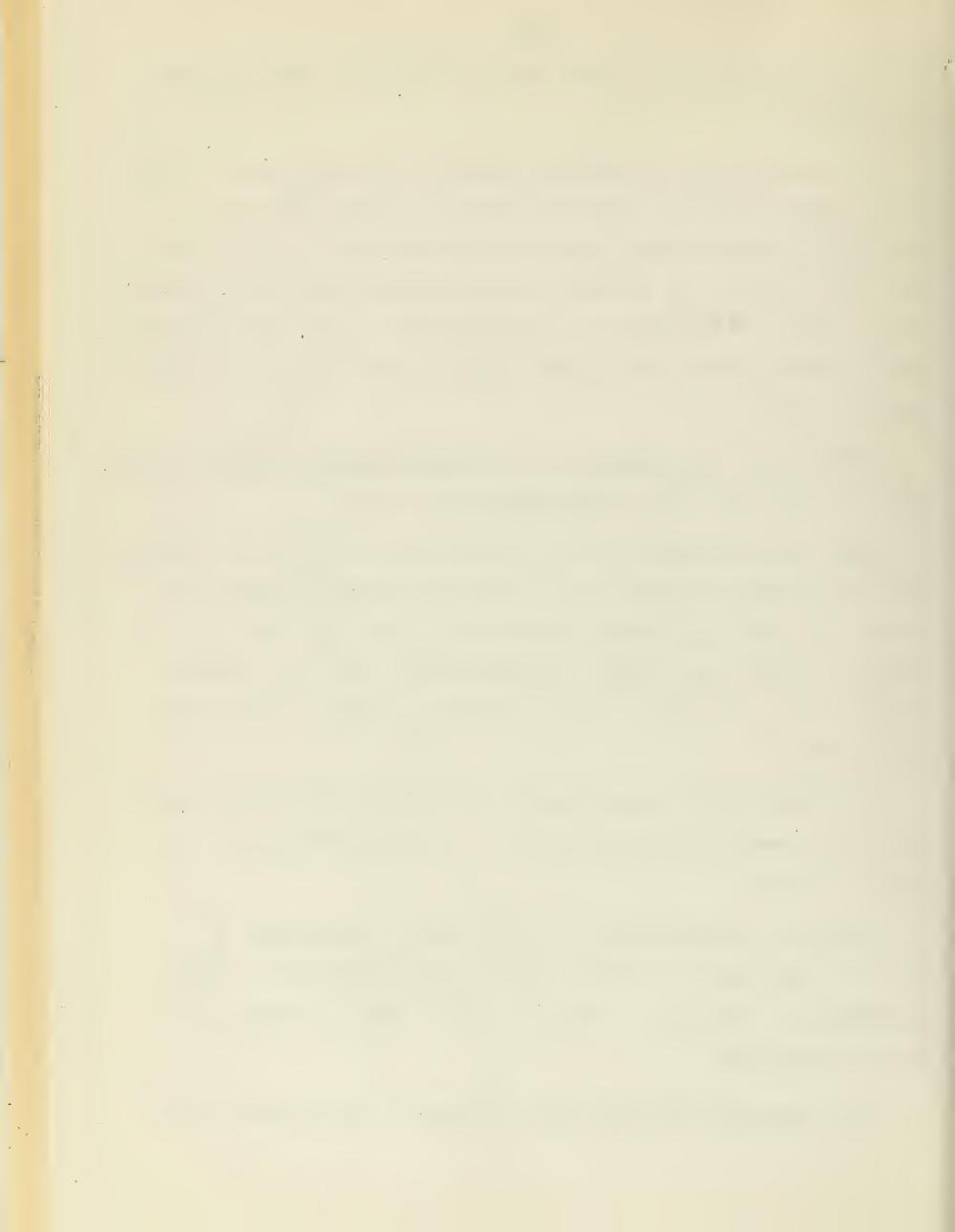
THEOREM 3.5.4: If, in Theorem 3.5.3, the coefficients and  $f \in C_{\mu}^{1}(\overline{B}_{R})$ , or  $C_{\mu}^{1}(\overline{G}_{H})$ , then  $u \in C_{\mu}^{3}(B_{r})$  or  $C_{\mu}^{3}(G_{r})$ , respectively, for r < R.

<u>Proof</u>: For, by Theorem 3.4.3, we see first that  $u \in C^2_\mu(B_n)$  or  $C^2_\mu(G_n)$ , using the notation of the proof above. Applying the difference quotient procedure, we see that  $F_h$  converges uniformly on  $B_r$  (or  $G_r$ ) to F as defined in (3.5.6) with  $\|F_h\|_{\mu}^0$  uniformly bounded. Then u, satisfies an equation Lu, = F where  $F \in C^0_\mu$ , so that u,  $\in C^2_\mu(B_r)$ . The case for  $G_R$  is similar.

It is clear that the processes above may be repeated and it is also clear what types of results hold for solutions of (3.1.1) on smooth domains. For example, we state:

Suppose the coefficients and f  $\epsilon$   $C_{\mu}^{k}(\overline{G})$  where G is of class  $C_{\mu}^{k+2}$ ,  $0 < \mu < 1$ , and suppose u  $\epsilon$   $H_{2}^{2}(G)$   $H_{20}^{l}(G)$  and satisfies (3.1.1) almost everywhere on G for some  $\lambda$ . Then u  $\epsilon$   $C_{\mu}^{k+2}(\overline{G})$  and u vanishes on  $\overline{G}$  G in the ordinary sense.

3.6. Lower-order differentiability. Developments corresponding to those



in § 3.4 can be carried out for the equations (3.1.4). The idea is to restrict consideration to the case where

$$a^{\alpha\beta}(0) = \delta^{\alpha\beta}$$

and to write

$$(3.6.2)$$
  $u = u_R + H_R$ 

where  $H_R$  is harmonic. Then  $u_R$  must satisfy the equation

(3.6.3) 
$$\int_{G} \{v_{,\alpha}[\delta^{\alpha\beta} u_{R,\beta} + (a^{\alpha\beta} - \delta^{\alpha\beta})u_{,\beta} + b^{\alpha}u + e^{\alpha}] + v(c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + du + f)\} ix = 0,$$
 for all  $v \in H^{1}_{20}(G)$ , where  $G = B_{R}$  or  $G_{R}$ . In the case of  $B_{R}$ , we take

(3.6.4) 
$$u_R = Q_R[(a - a_0) \cdot \nabla u + bu + e] + P_R[c \cdot \nabla u + du + f]$$

where we  $Q_R(E)$  denotes the quasi-potential of the vector of E as defined in (2.6.1) and  $P_R(F)$  is the potential of F as modified before in case V = 2. Then, as before,

$$(3.6.5) u_R - T_R u_R = v_R$$

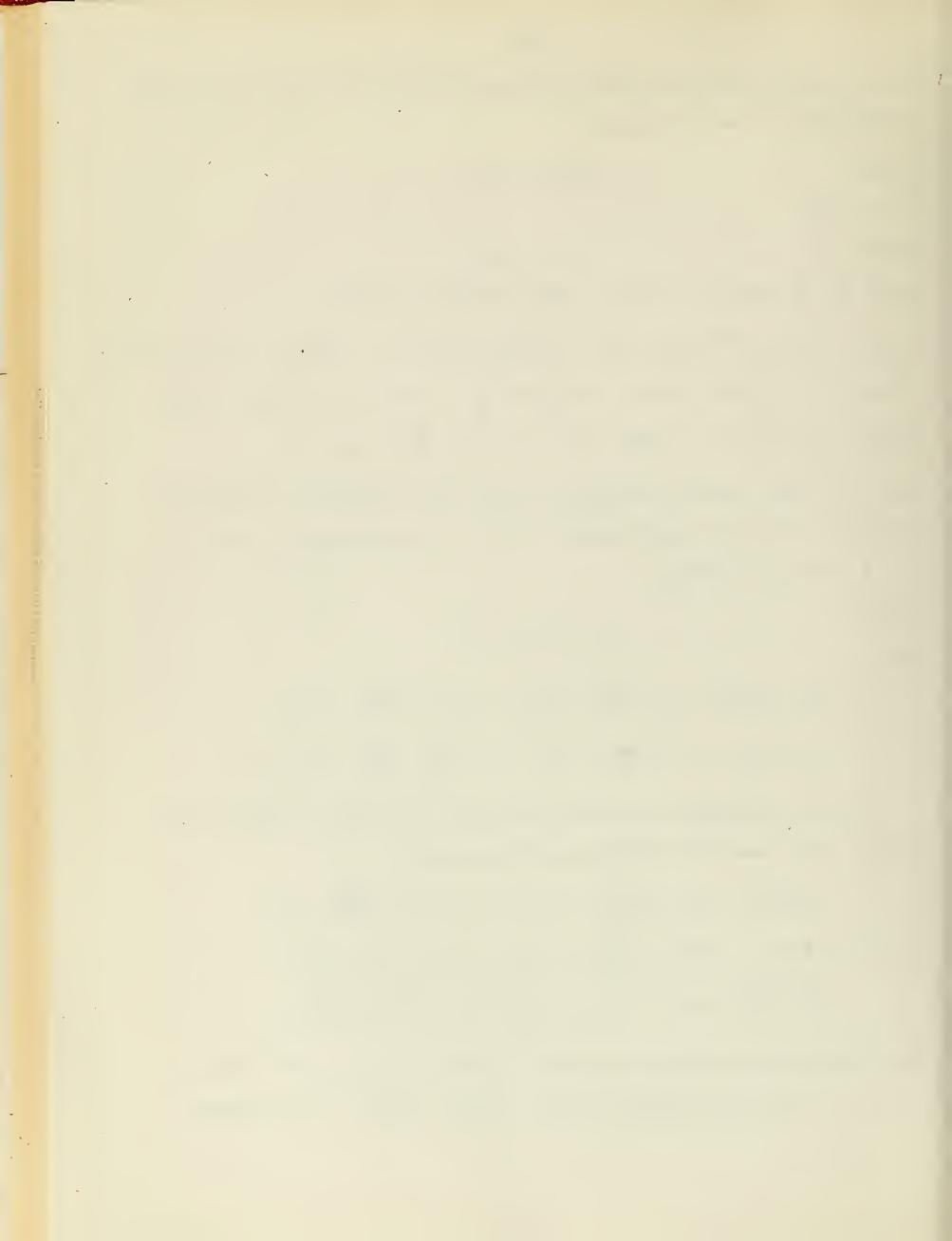
where

$$T_{R}u_{R} = Q_{R}[(a - a_{O}) \cdot \nabla u_{R} + bu_{R}] + P_{R}[c \cdot \nabla u_{R} + du_{R}]$$

$$\nabla_{R} = Q_{R}[(a - a_{O}) \cdot \nabla H_{R} + bH_{R} + e] + P_{R}[c \cdot \nabla H_{R} + dH_{R} + f].$$

Then it is desirable to introduce the spaces  ${}^*C^{1+\mu}(B_R)$ ,  ${}^*C^{\mu}(B_R)$ , and  ${}^*H^{\mu}(B_R)$  with norms (for  ${}^*H^{\mu}(B_R)$ , see Theorem 2.5.4)

where the required continuity is implied except in the case of  $^*M^L$  where f is merely bounded and measurable on each  $B_r$  and  $\|\|f\|\|_r^0$  is its essential



sup. there. Then one can prove the lemmas and theorem:

LHAMA 3.6.1: (a)  $Q_R$  is a bounded operator from  ${}^*\!C^L(E_R)$  to  ${}^*\!C^{L+L}(E_R)$  with bound independent of R.

(b)  $P_R$  is a bounded operator from  $^*M^L$  to  $^*C^{l+\mu}$  with a bound of the form  $C(\mu, \nu) \cdot R$ .

LEMMA 3.6.2: There are constants  $C_k(\cdot)$  such that

(a) 
$$\| \mathbf{e} \|_{\mathbf{r}}^{0} \le \mathbf{C}_{1} \mathbf{K}_{1} \cdot (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{r})^{-\tau}$$
,  $0 < \mathbf{r} < \mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{ec} * \mathbf{C}^{1}$ ,  $\mathbf{K}_{1} = * \| \mathbf{e} \|_{1}^{1}$ ;

(b) 
$$\|\nabla u\|_{r}^{0} \leq C_{1}K_{2}(R-r)^{-\tau}$$
,  $h_{1}(u, B_{r}) \leq C_{2}K_{2}(R-r)^{1-\mu-\tau}$ ,

(c) 
$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{r}}^{0} \leq C_{3} K_{2}^{R^{\mu}} (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{r})^{1-\tau-\mu}$$
,  $\mathbf{u} \in C^{1+\mu}$ ,  $K_{2} = \| \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{r}}^{1+\mu}$ ,  $T = 1/2$ .

THIOREM 3.6.1: If H is harmonic and  $\varepsilon H_2^1(B_R)$ , then H  $\varepsilon C^{1+\mu}(B_R)$  and  $* \| H \|_R^{1+\mu} \leq C(\mu, \Psi)' \| H \|_{2,R}^1$ 

Note also Incorem 3.4.1.

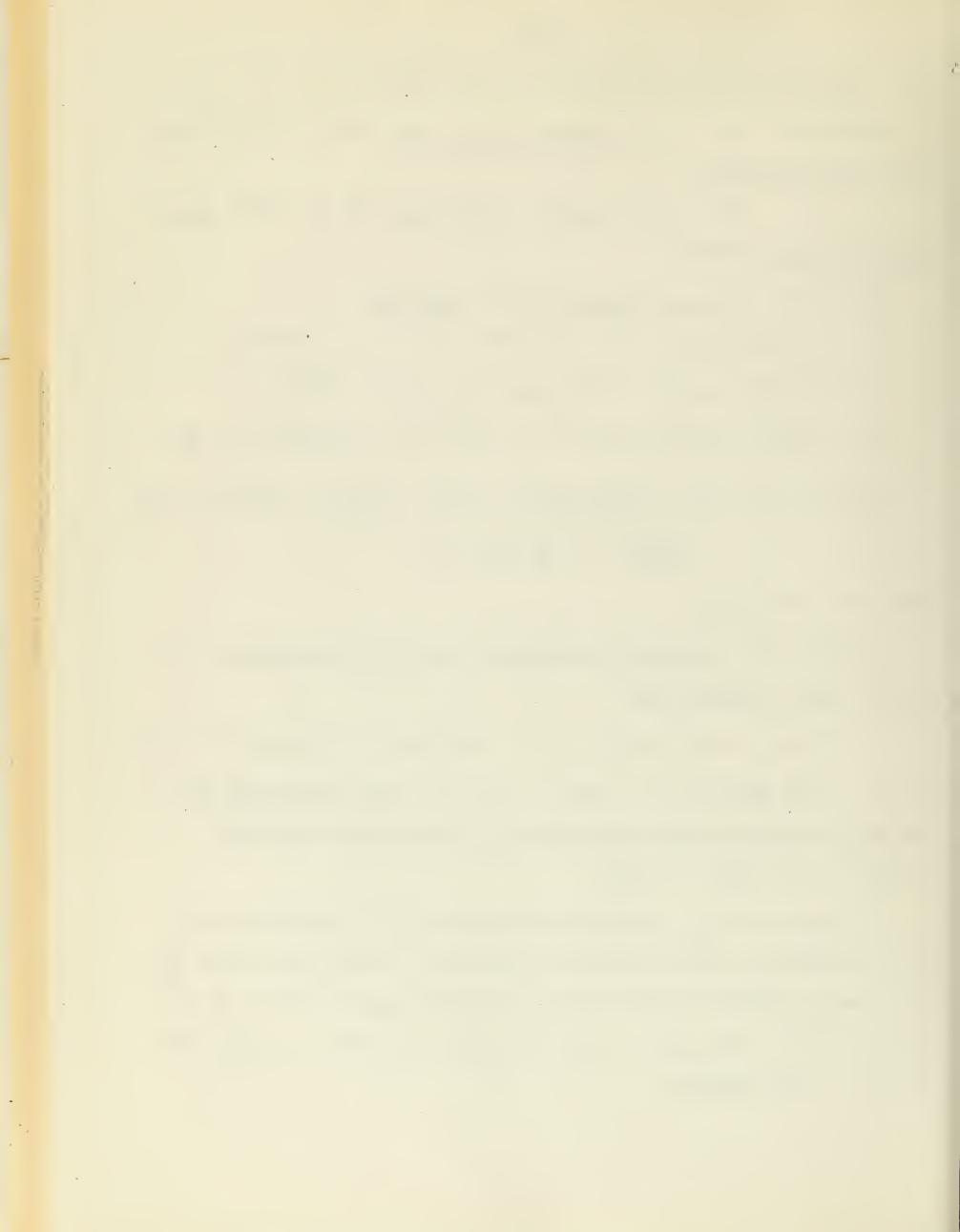
THEOREM 3.6.2: Suppose the coefficients satisfy the conditions of § 3.1

on E<sub>RO</sub> and, in addition that

$$|a(x_2) - a(x_1)| \le A_1 |x_2 - x_1|^{\mu}$$
,  $|b(x_2) - b(x_1)| \le B_1 |x_2 - x_1|^{\mu}$ ,  $0 < \mu < 1$ 

on  $\overline{B}_{R_0}$ . Then there is an  $R_2$  with  $0 < R_2 < R_0$ , which depends only on  $\mu$ , and the bounds and Holder constants for the coefficients, such that  $\|T_{R}\|^{1+\mu} \le 1/2 \text{ if } 0 < R \le R_2 .$ 

For the case of  $G_R$ , the corresponding program can be carried through; it is necessary to restrict attention to functions u which vanish along  $\sigma_R$ . The spaces are defined as above with  $G_r$  replacing  $B_r$ , u=0 along  $\sigma_R$  in the case  ${}^*C^{1+\mu}$ . Then, for e and f and f and g and g by the formulas



$$u(x) = \int_{B_R} K_{0,\alpha}(x-\xi)e^{\alpha(\xi)d} - 2\sum_{\alpha=1}^{n-1} \int_{G_R} K_0(x-\xi)e(\xi)d\xi$$

(3.6.8)

$$v(x) = \int_{B_R} K_0(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi - 2 \int_{G_R} K_0(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$

where the e and f have been extended to GR by the formulas

$$e^{\alpha}(x^{\gamma}, x'_{\gamma}) = e^{\alpha}(-x^{\gamma}, x'_{\gamma}), \alpha = 1, ..., \gamma, f(x^{\gamma}, x'_{\gamma}) = f(-x^{\gamma}, x'_{\gamma})$$

Then the reader can prove the corresponding lemmas 3.6.1, etc., for the functions on  $G_{\mathrm{R}}$  .

## EXERCISES

Prove Lemma 3.6.1 (a).

2. Prove Lemma 3.6.1 (b).

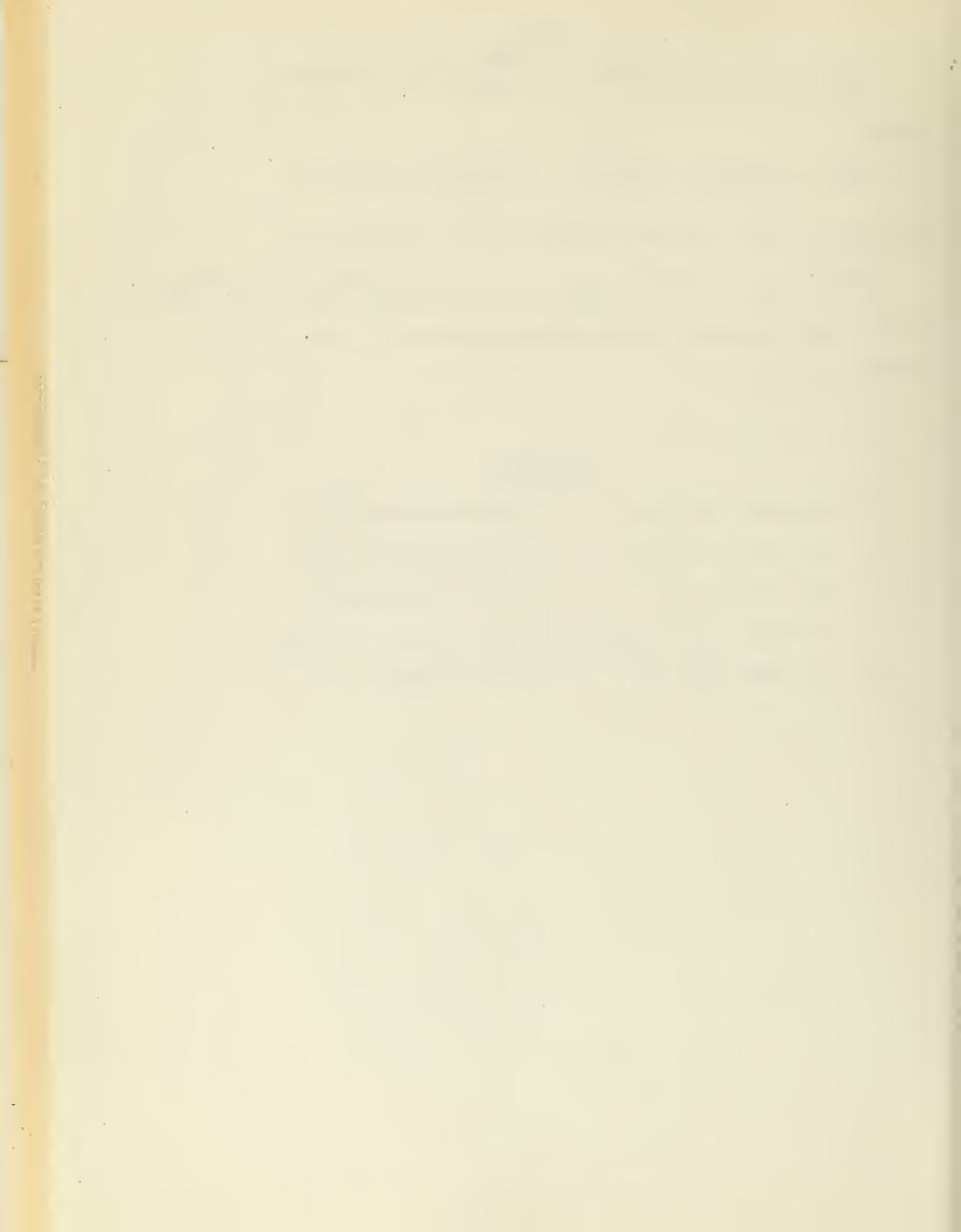
Prove Lemma 3.6.2 (a). 4. Prove Lemma 3.6.2 (b).

Prove Theorem 3.6.1. 5.

6. Prove Theorem 3.6.2.

7. Prove Lemma 3.6.1 (a); note that  $Q_R(e)$  must = 0 on  $\sigma_R$ .

8. Frove Lemma 3.6.1'(b). 9. Prove Theorem 3.6.2'.



## CHAPTER 4

## MULTIPLE INTEGRALS IN THE CALCULUS OF VARIATIONS

<u>4.1.</u> <u>Introduction</u>. Interest in the calculus of variations was aroused by various problems in mechanics and geometry some of which were very old.

Interest was heightened by Hamilton's Principle in mechanics. The solution of these problems involved the determination of that function (or vector function) which minimizes (or at least gives a stationary value to) an integral

(4.1.1) 
$$I(z) = \int_a^b f[x, z(x), z'(x)] dx$$

where x denotes a single variable. Riemann aroused interest in a corresponding type of integral involving two independent variables when he discovered many interesting results in function theory by assuming that the so-called Dirichlet integral (see § 2.2) had a minimum with given boundary values. Unfortunately, this matter was not cleared up until about 1900 by Hilbert who proved that this was true under certain conditions.

Riemann's idea was based on the fact that the Euler equation (see below) for the Dirichlet integral is just Laplace's equation. The Euler equation for a solution of a problem

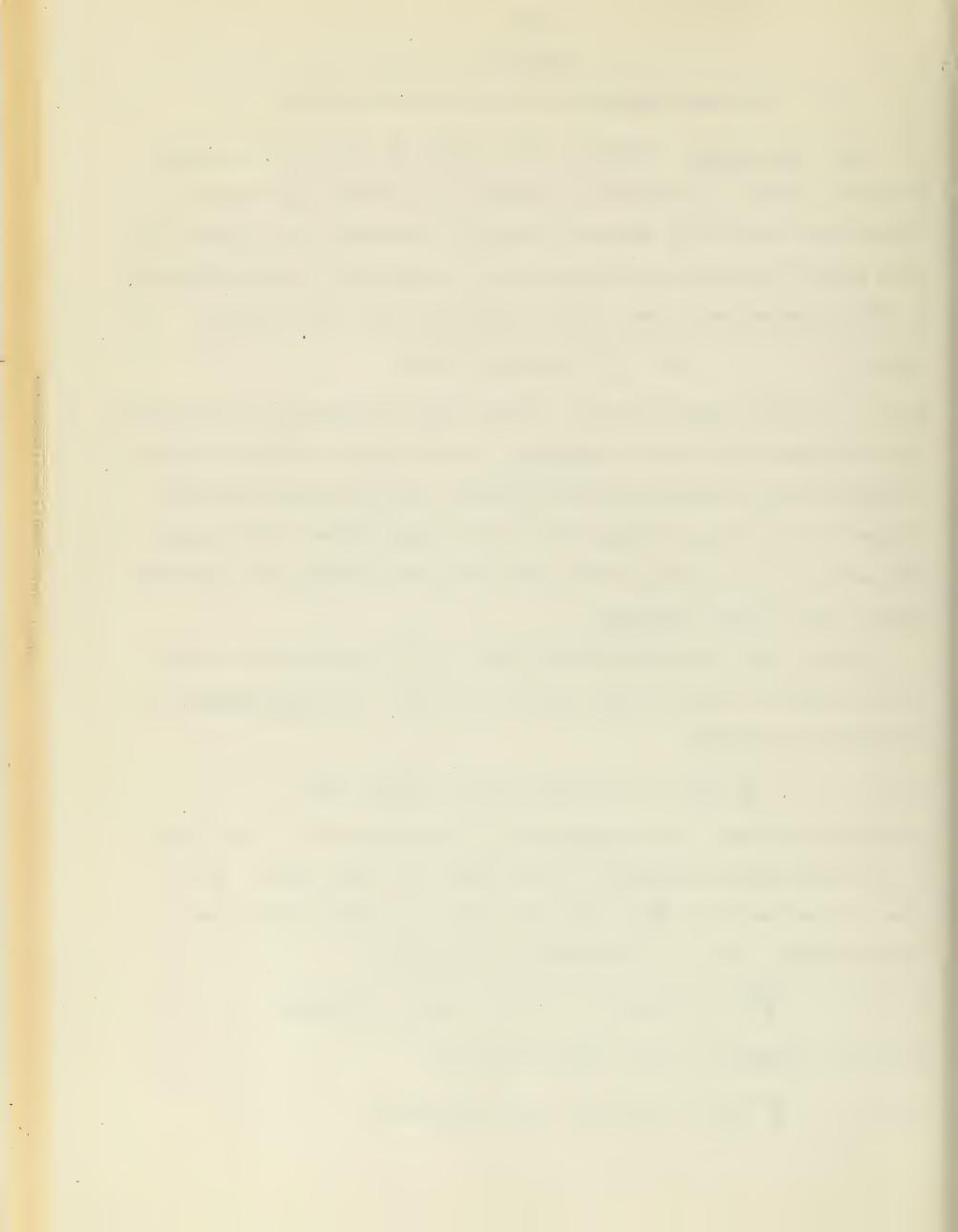
(4.1.2) 
$$\iint_{G} f[x, y, z(s, y)z_{x}(x, y)z_{y}(x, y)]dxdy = min.$$

is derived as follows: Let us assume that f is of class C", G is of class C', and the minimizing function z is of class C". Let  $\zeta(x, y)$  be of class C' and vanish on  $\delta G$ . Then, for each  $\lambda$ ,  $z + \lambda \zeta$  has the given boundary values. Since z is minimizing, the function

(4.1.3) 
$$\varphi(\lambda) = \iint f(x, y, z + \lambda \zeta, z_x + \lambda \zeta_x, z_y + \lambda \zeta_y) dxdy$$

must have a minimum at  $\lambda = 0$ . Thus we must have

(4.1.4) 
$$\varphi'(0) = 0 = \iint_C (f_z \zeta + f_p \zeta_x + f_q \zeta_y) dx dy$$
,



where

 $f = f(x, y, z, p, q), f_z$  means  $f_z[x, y, z(x, y), z_x(x, y), z_y(x, y)],$  etc. Since f and z are of class C', we may apply Green's theorem to obtain  $\iint \zeta[f_z - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f_p - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f_q] dxdy = 0$ 

for every  $\zeta$  of class C" which vanishes on  $\partial G$ . By approximations, (4.1.5) holds for all  $\zeta$  in  $L_1(G)$  which do not have to vanish on  $\partial G$ . It follows that z must satisfy

(4.1.6) 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f_p + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f_q = f_z$$

which reduces to Laplace's equation if  $f = p^2 + q^2$ . It is clear how to derive Euler's equation corresponding to an integral involving more (or fewer) variables x and more variables z.

This derivation requires (1) that there is a minimizing function and (2) that it be of class C'' on  $\overline{G}$ . That there may not always be a minimizing function is seen by the following example for one function z of one variable x:

$$I(z) = \int_0^1 (1 + z'^2)^{1/4} dx$$
,  $z(0) = 0$ ,  $z(1) = 1$ .

Since the integrand > 1 for every z of class C' with the given boundary values, I(z) > 1 for all admitted z . But suppose we define

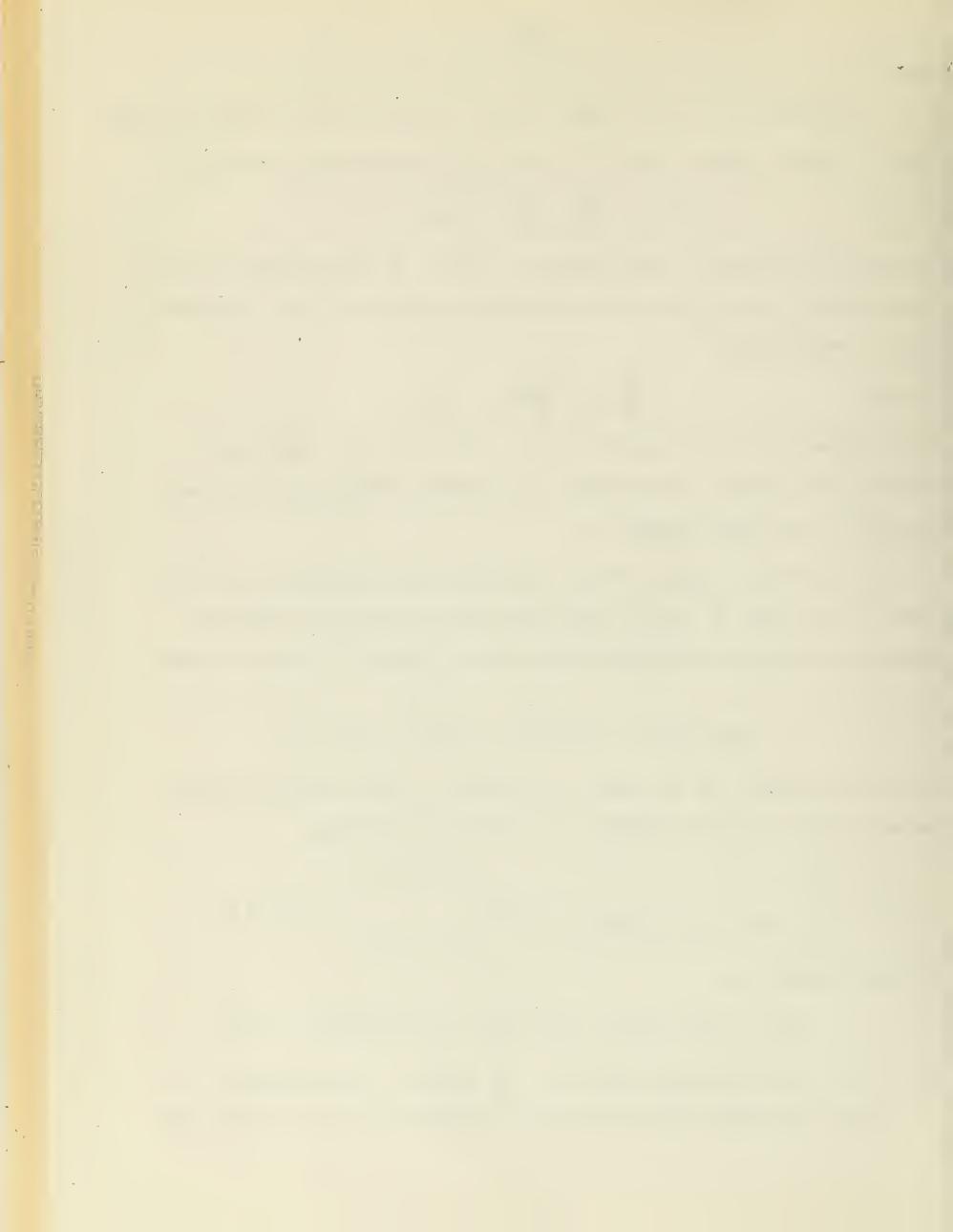
$$z(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & , 0 \le x \le r \\ -1 + [1 + 3 (x - r)^{2}/(1 - r)^{2}]^{1/2} & , r \le x \le 1 \end{cases}$$

For this function z,

$$I(z) \le \int_{r}^{1} [1 + 9/(1 - r)^{2}]^{1/4} dx + r \le r + 10^{1/4} (1 - r)^{1/2}$$

which can be made arbitrarily close to 1 by taking r close enough to 1.

Another difficulty which arises in the Dirichlet problem is the fact that



there can be continuous boundary values for which the Dirichlet integral cannot be finite. From what we now know, the harmonic function minimizes the Dirichlet integral whenever that is finite. Any harmonic function on B(0, 1) can be represented by a series

$$(4.1.7) u = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n (a_n \cos n \theta + b_n \sin n \theta)$$

which converges absolutely-uhiformly with all its derivative series for r < 1. Its Dirichlet integral over B(0, 1) is found to be

(4.1.8) 
$$D(u, B_1) = \pi \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(a_n^2 + b_n^2)$$

If we set

$$\varphi(\hat{\sigma}) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \frac{\infty}{n=1} n^{-2} \cos(n!\theta)$$

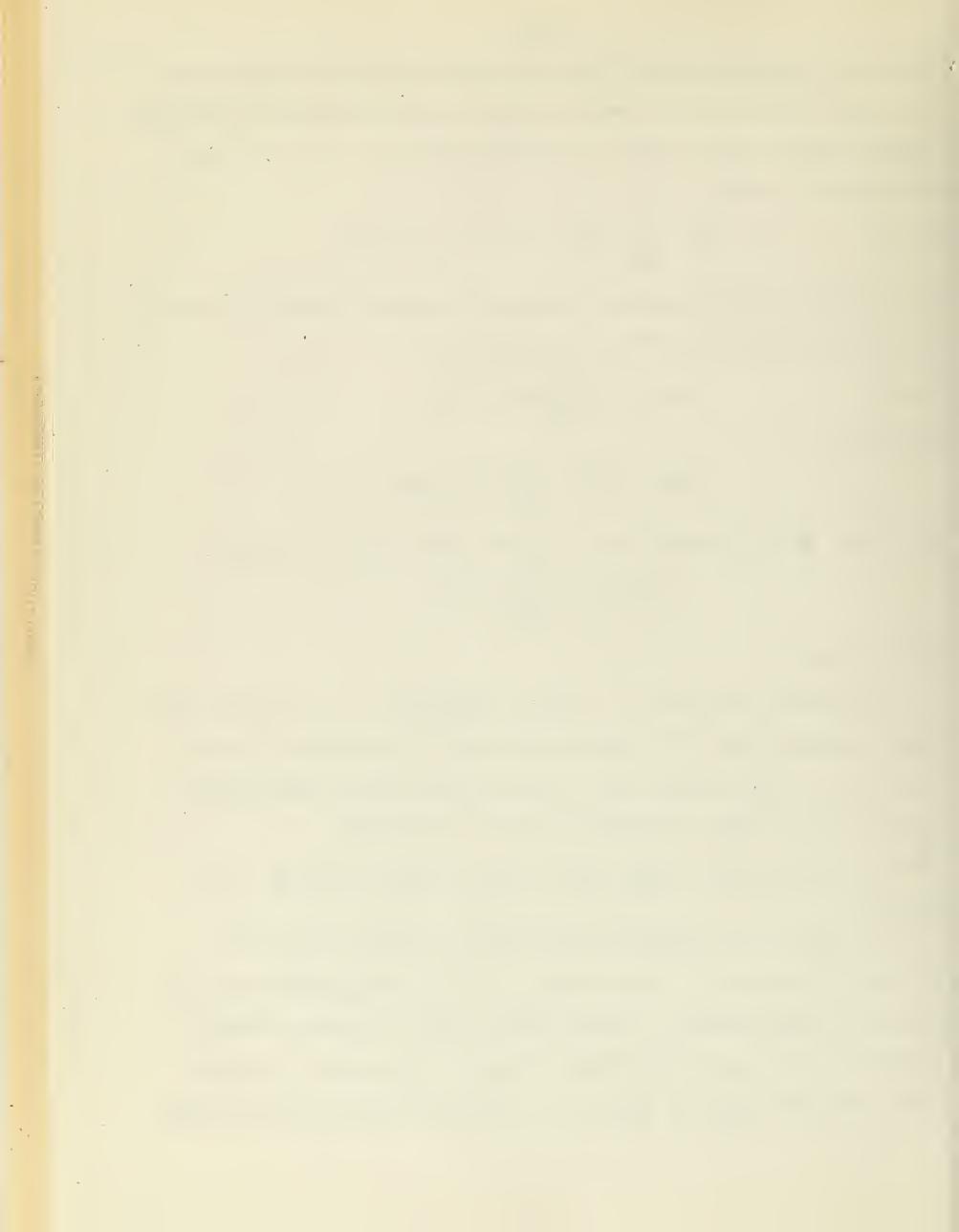
we see that  $\varphi$  is continuous but if  $u(1, \theta) = \varphi(\theta)$  and u is harmonic  $D(u, B_1) = \pi \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-4} \cdot n!$ 

which diverges.

We now have a condition on f which is necessary if f is to have a minimizing function of class C': Let us assume that f is of class C' and z is of class C' and minimizes I(z) among functions with the same boundary values. Then if  $\varphi(\lambda)$  is defined by (4.1.3), we must have

$$\Psi^{\text{H}}(0) = \iint \left[ a(x, y) \zeta_{x}^{2} + 2b\zeta_{x}\zeta_{y} + c\zeta_{y}^{2} + 2d\zeta\zeta_{x} + 2e\zeta\zeta_{y} + \zeta^{2} \right] dx dy \ge 0,$$
(4.1.9)
$$a = f_{\text{pp}}[x, y, z(x, y)z_{x}(x, y), z_{y}(x, y)], b = f_{\text{pq}}, c = f_{\text{qq}}, \text{ etc.},$$

for every  $\zeta$  of class C' which vanishes on  $\partial G$ . By approximations, this must hold for all Lipschitz  $\zeta$  which vanish on  $\partial G$ . We note that the coefficients a, b, ..., are continuous. Now, let  $(x_0, y_0) \in G$  and choose  $(\xi, \eta)$  axes with origin at  $P_0(x_0, y_0)$  obtained by rotating through an angle



 $\theta$  and let  $\lambda = \cos \theta$ ,  $\mu = \sin \theta$ . Choose a rectangle R with short side  $2h \| \xi$  axis and long side  $2H \| y$  axis and center at  $P_0$  and which lies in G. Divide this into triangles by its diagonals and let  $\zeta$  be the unique function which is continuous on  $\overline{G}$ , 0 outside R, linear on each triangle of R, and equal to h at  $P_0$ . If we form  $\mathcal{P}^{\mu}(0)$  for that  $\zeta$ , choose sequences  $\{h_n\}$  and  $\{H_n\}$   $\longrightarrow$  0 so that  $(h_n/H_n)$   $\longrightarrow$  0, divide by  $(h_nH_n/2)$  and pass to the limit, we obtain the result that

(4.1.10) 
$$f_{pp}\lambda^2 + 2f_{pq}\lambda\mu + f_{qq}\mu^2 \ge 0$$
,  $f_{pp} = a(x_0, y_0)$ , etc.,

for all  $\lambda$ ,  $\mu$ . If this were to hold for all (x, y, z, p, q), it would follow that f would be convex in (p, q) for each (x, y, z).

We shall consider, in this chapter, integrals of the form

(4.1.11) 
$$I(z, G) = \int_{G} f(x, z, \nabla z) dx,$$

where f(x, z, p) is continuous in its arguments

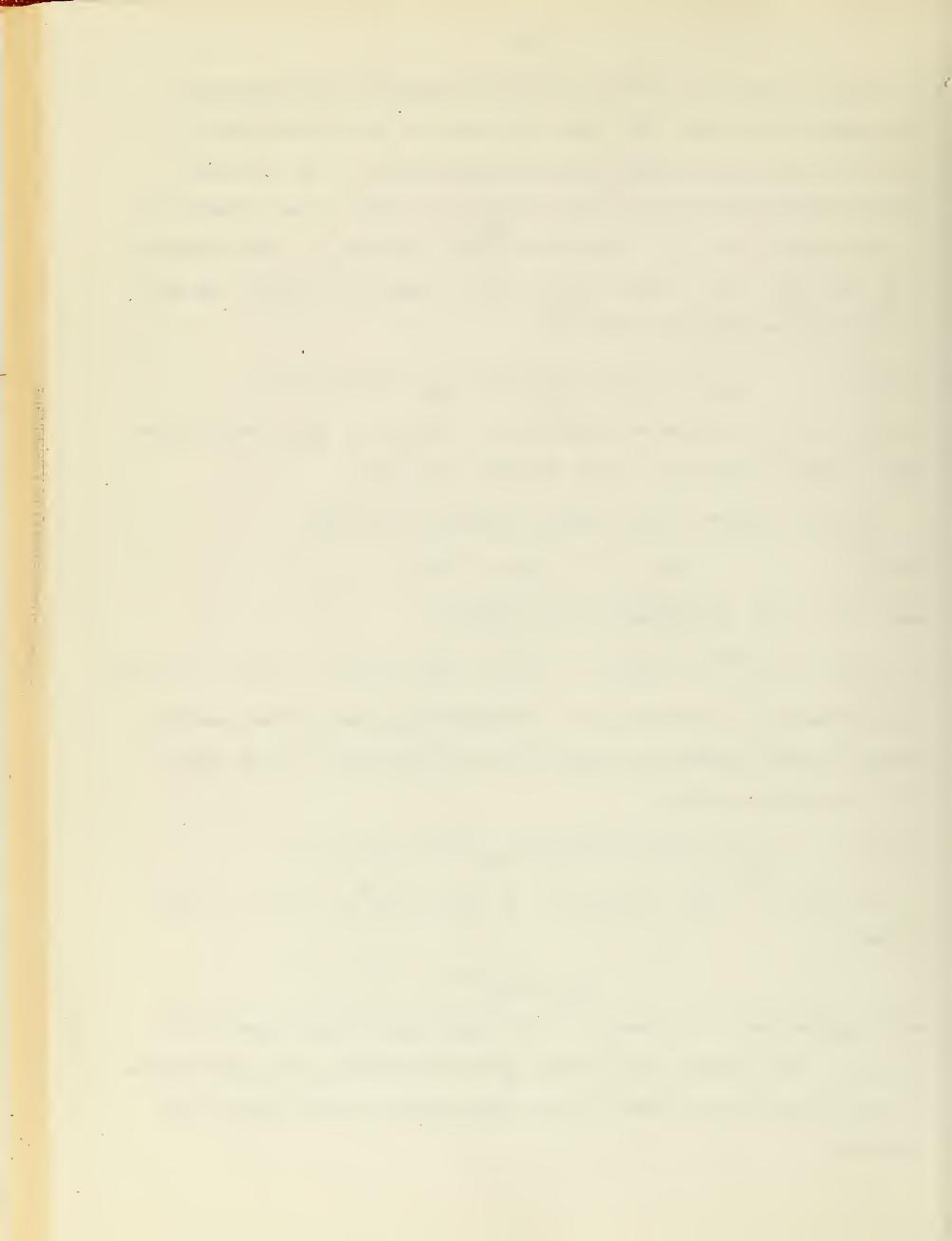
$$x = (x^{1}, ..., x^{N}), z = (z^{1}, ..., z^{N}), p = \{p_{\alpha}^{i}\}, i = 1, ..., N; \alpha = 1, ..., N$$

If we assume that f is of class C'' and repeat the argument of the preceding section (modified properly) we conclude that, if the vector z is of class C' in G and minimizes I(z),

(4.1.12) 
$$f_{p_{\alpha}^{i}p_{\beta}^{j}}[x_{0}, z^{(x_{0})}, \nabla x(x_{0})]\lambda_{\alpha}\lambda_{\beta}\xi^{i}\xi^{j} \geq 0, x_{0} \in 0$$
 for all vectors  $\lambda = (\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{\gamma})$  and  $\xi = (\xi_{1}^{j}, \ldots, \xi_{N}^{N})$ . If  $N = 1$ , this becomes

$$f_{p_{\alpha}p_{\beta}}$$
  $\lambda_{\alpha}\lambda_{\beta} \geq 0$ 

which implies that f is convex in p for each (x, z) if it holds for all (x, z, p). The condition (4.1.12) does not imply convexity in all the variables  $p_{\alpha}^{i}$  taken together and not much is known about integrals subject only to that condition.



DEFINITION: A variational problem in which f satisfies (4.1.12) with the equality excluded for all  $\lambda \neq 0$ ,  $\xi \neq 0$ , and all (x, z, p) is called regular.

REMARK: We shall see that the Euler equations for a regular variational problem are elliptic.

 $\underline{\text{4.2.}}$  Some lower-semicontinuity and existence theorems. In this section we consider integrals (4.1.11) in which f(x, z, p) is convex in all the variables p, G is bounded and of class C', and

(4.2.1) 
$$f(x, z, p) \ge f_0(p)$$
,  $\lim_{|p| \to \infty} f_0(p)/|p| = +\infty$ ,

for being convex.

DEFINITIONS: A set S in a linear space is said to be convex if and only if the segment  $P_1P_2$  belongs to S whenever the points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  do. A function  $\psi(\xi)$  ( $\xi = (\xi^1, ..., \xi^P)$ ) is said to be convex on the convex set S in the  $\xi$ -space if and only if

$$\varphi[(1-\lambda)\xi_1 + \lambda\xi_2] \le (1-\lambda)\varphi(\xi_1) + \lambda \varphi(\xi_2) , 0 \le \lambda \le 1,$$
whenever  $\xi_1$  and  $\xi_2 \in S$ .

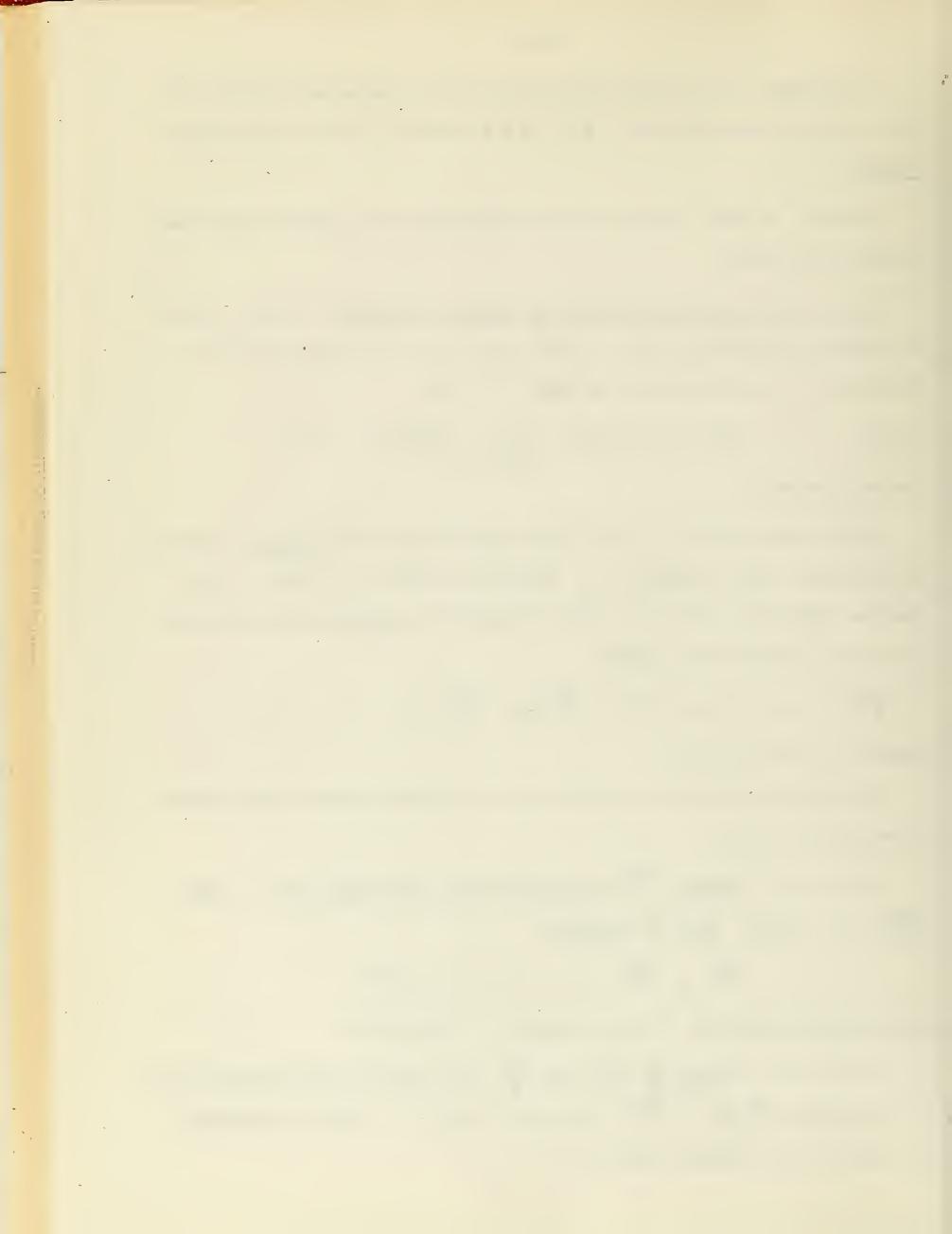
The following theorems concerning convex functions are well known and are stated without proof:

LEMMA 4.2.1: Suppose  $\varphi(\xi)$  is convex on the open convex set S with  $|\varphi(\xi)| \leq M$  there. Then  $\varphi$  satisfies

$$|\varphi(\xi_2) - \varphi(\xi_1)| \le 2M \cdot |\xi_2 - \xi_1|/\delta$$

on any conpact subset of S at a distance  $> \delta$  from  $\partial S$ .

LEMMA 4.2.2: Suppose  $\varphi$  and each  $\varphi_n$  are convex on the open convex set  $\varphi_n(\xi) \longrightarrow \varphi(\xi)$  for each  $\xi$  on S. Then the convergence is uniform on any compact subset of S.



LEMMA 4.2.3: A necessary and sufficient condition that  $\varphi$  be convex on the open convex set S is that for each  $\xi$  in S there exists a linear function  $a_p \xi^{p} + b$  such that

(4.2.2)  $\psi(\overline{\xi}) = a_p \overline{\xi}^p + b$ ,  $\psi(\xi) \ge a_p \xi^p + b$  for all  $\xi \in S$ .

If  $\varphi$  is of class C' on S, this condition is equivalent to  $\Xi(\xi, \overline{\xi}) = \varphi(\xi) - \varphi(\xi) - (\xi^{\alpha} - \overline{\xi}^{\alpha}) \varphi_{,\alpha} (\overline{\xi}) \ge 0, \xi, \overline{\xi} \in S.$ 

If  $\varphi$  is of class C'' on S, this condition is equivalent to  $\varphi$ ,  $\varphi$   $\geq 0$ 

for all \( \xi \) on S and \( \eta \).

DEFINITION: A linear function  $a_p \xi^{-p} + b$  which satisfies (4.2.2) for some  $\xi$  is said to be supporting to f at  $\overline{\xi}$ .

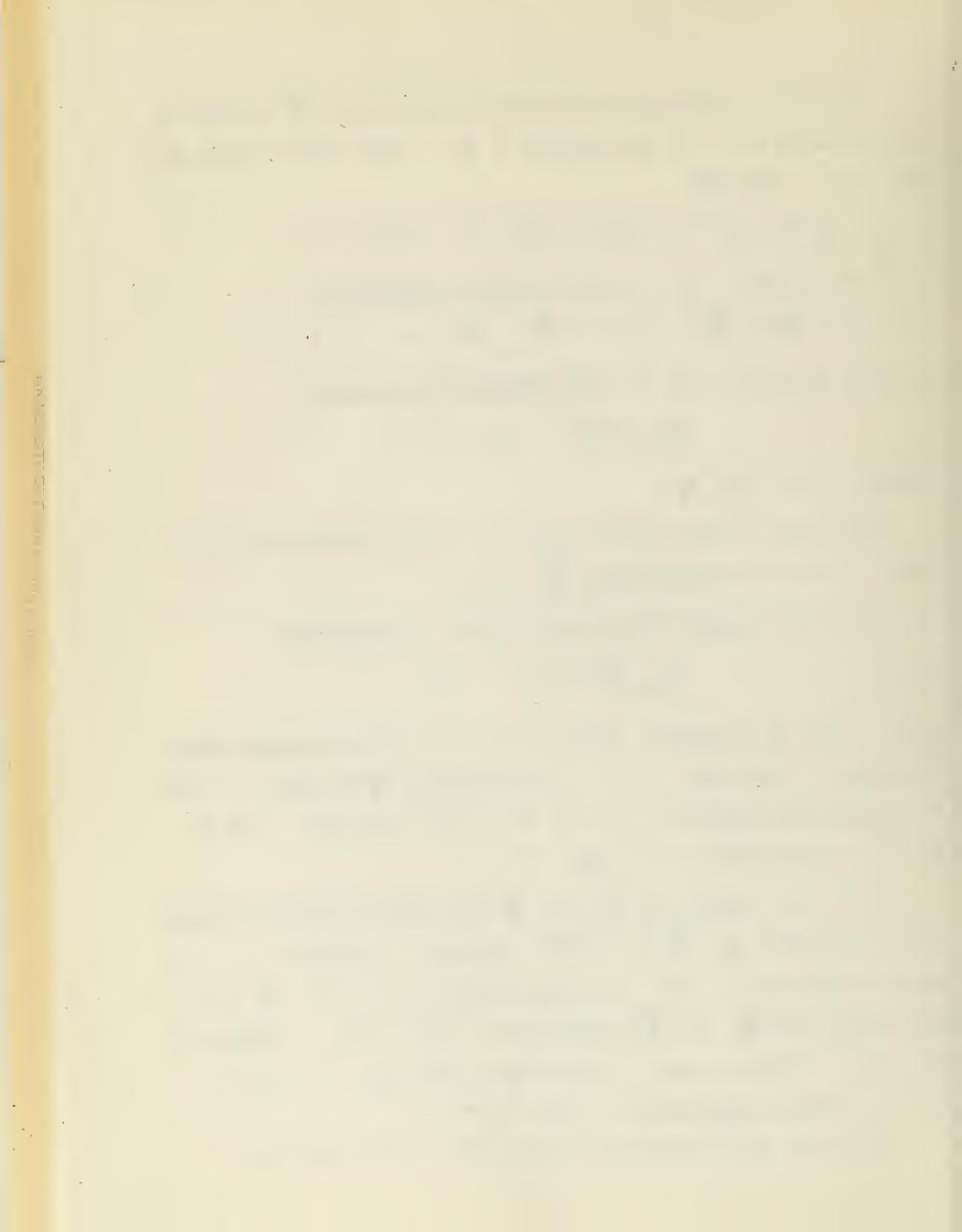
LEMMA 4.2.4: Suppose  $\varphi$  is convex for all  $\xi$  and satisfies

(4.2.3)  $\lim_{|\xi| \to \infty} |\varphi(\xi)/|\xi| = + \infty.$ 

Then  $\mathcal{T}$  takes on its minimum. Also, if  $a_1, \dots, a_p$  are any numbers, there is a unique b such that  $a_p \xi^p + b$  is supporting to  $\mathcal{U}$  for some  $\xi$ . If  $\psi$  is convex and satisfies (4.2.3), if  $\psi(\xi) \geq \mathcal{V}(\xi)$  for each , and if  $a_p \xi^p + c$  is supporting to  $\psi$ , then  $c \geq b$ .

LEMMA 4.2.5: Suppose that  $\mathcal{P}_n$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  are everywhere convex and satisfy (4.2.3) and suppose that  $\mathcal{P}_n(\xi) \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(\xi)$  for each  $\xi$ . Suppose  $a_1, \dots, a_p$  are any numbers and  $b_n$  and b are chosen so that  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  and  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  are supporting to  $\mathcal{P}_n$  and  $\mathcal{P}_n$ , respectively. Then  $b_n \longrightarrow b$ . Likewise, if  $a_{np} \longrightarrow a_p$  for each p and  $b_n$  are chosen so that  $a_{np} \xi^p + b_n$  and  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  and  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  and  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  are all supporting to  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  and  $a_p \xi^p + b_n$  are all supporting to  $a_p \xi^p + b_n \xi^p + b_n$  are all supporting to  $a_p \xi^p + b_n \xi^p + b_n$ 

The proof of the following lemma is much like that of Lemma 2.4.2.



LEMMA 4.2.6: Suppose  $z \in H_1^1(G)$ ,  $\overline{D} \subset G_0$ ,  $0 < \rho < \rho_0$ , and  $\varphi$  is a non-negative Friedrichs mollifier. Then

$$(4.2.4) \qquad \int_{\mathbb{D}} \left[ \int_{\mathbb{B}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\rho})} \rho^{-\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}} \frac{\boldsymbol{\xi} - \mathbf{x}}{\boldsymbol{\rho}} \right] |z(\xi) - z(\mathbf{x})| d\xi d\mathbf{x} \leq \rho \int_{\mathbb{G}} |\nabla z(\mathbf{y})| d\mathbf{y}$$

Proof: Clearly we may choose a domain  $D'\subset G$  such that  $\overline{D}\subset D$  and we may approximate on  $\overline{D}'$  to z strongly in  $H_1^1(D')$  by functions of class C'. Thus we may assume z  $\varepsilon$  C'(D'). Then

$$|z(\xi) - z(x)| = |(\xi^{\alpha} - x^{\alpha}) \cdot \int_{0}^{1} z_{,\alpha}[x + t)(\xi - x)]|dt \le |\xi - x| \cdot \int_{0}^{1} |\nabla z[x + t(\xi - x)]|dt$$
Substituting this in the left side of (4.2.4) which we call I, letting
$$1 = \xi - x, \text{ and interchanging the order of integration, we obtain (since } |\eta| \le \rho)$$

$$(4.2.5) \qquad I \le \rho \int_{B(0,\rho)} |\rho^{-1} |(\rho^{-1} - x^{\alpha})| dx dx dx$$

The result follows by letting  $y = x + t\eta$  and noting that the corresponding domain  $D(\eta, t) \subset D'$  for each  $(\eta, t)$ .

LEMMA 4.2.7 (Jensen's Inequality): If  $\varphi(\xi^1, \ldots, \xi^P)$  is convex for all  $\xi$ , S is a set,  $\mu$  is a non-negative bounded measure over S, and the functions  $\xi^p \in L_1(S, \mu)$ , then

$$\varphi(\xi', ..., \xi^p) \le [u(S)]^{-1} \int_S \varphi[\xi^1, ..., \xi^p] d\mu, \xi^p = [\mu(S)]^{-1} \int_S \xi^p d\mu.$$

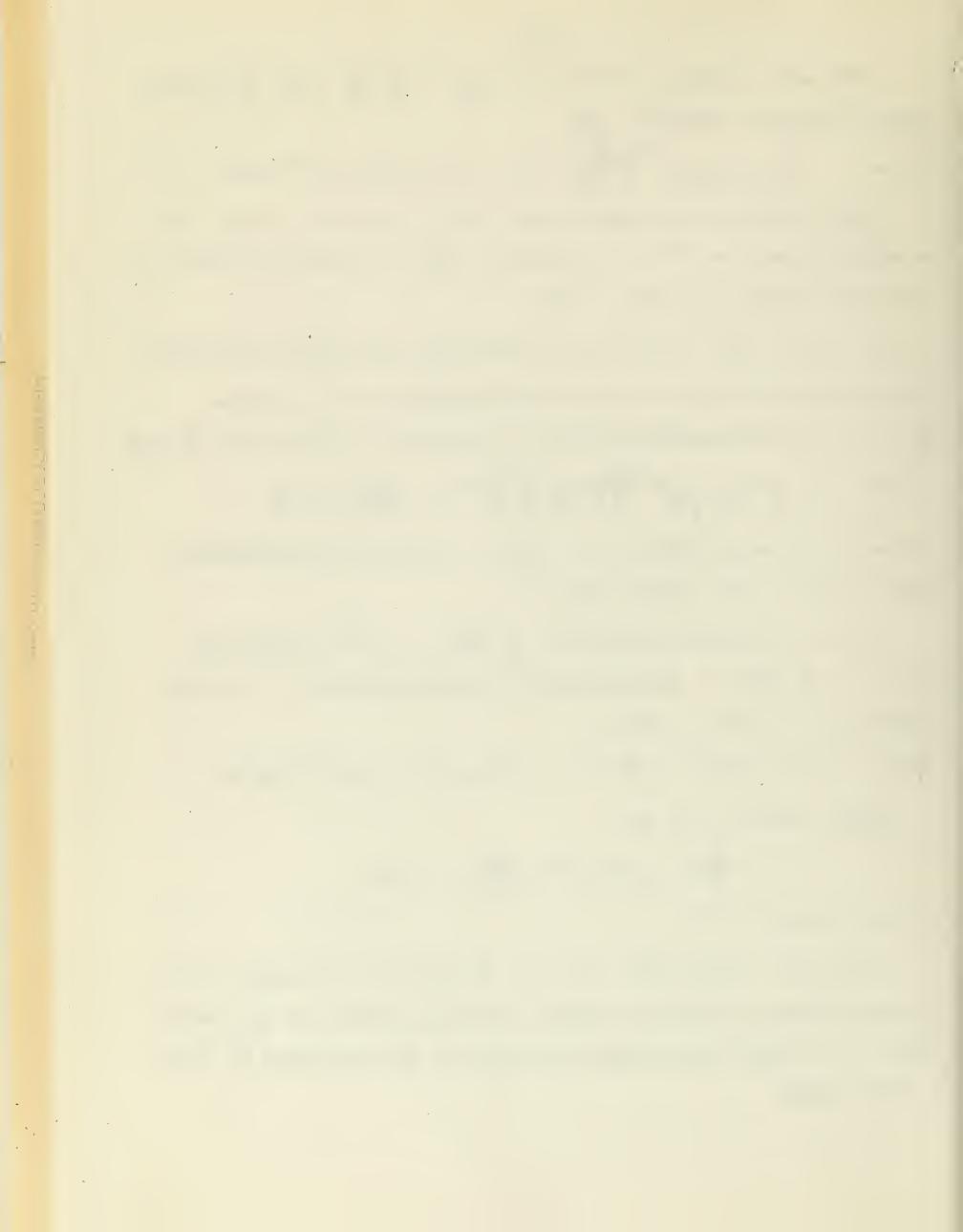
Proof: Choose a so that

$$\varphi(\xi) + a_p(\xi^p - \overline{\xi}^p) \le \varphi(\xi)$$
 for all

and then average over S .

LEMMA 4.2.8: Suppose that f(x, z, p) is convex in p for each (x, z), is bounded below, and satisfies a uniform Lepschitz condition for all (x, z, p).

Then I(z) is lower semicontinuous with respect to weak convergence in  $I_1(G)$ , the desired bounded.



Proof: From the hypotheses, it follows that

$$I(z) \le f(0, 0, 0) |G| + \int_G K |x| dx + K ||z||_{1,G}^1$$

K being the Lipschitz constant. Let DCCG with  $\overline{D}$ CG, suppose  $\overline{D}$  $0 < \rho < \rho_0$  , and  $\phi$  is a non-negative Friedrichs mollifier. Then from Jensen's Inequality with density  $\rho^{-1}\rho[(\xi-x)/\rho]$  on  $B(x,\rho)$ , we conclude that

$$\begin{split} f[x, z \rho(x), \nabla z \rho(x)] &\leq \int_{B(x, \rho)} f[x, z \rho(x), \nabla z(\xi)] \rho^{-\gamma} \varphi[(\xi - x)/\rho] d\xi \\ &= F \rho(x) - \int_{B(x, \rho)} \{ f[\xi, z(\xi), \nabla z(\xi)] - f[x, z \rho(x), \nabla z(\xi)] \} \rho^{\gamma} \varphi[(\xi - x)/\rho] d\xi \\ &\leq F \rho(x) + K \rho + |z(x) - z \rho(x)| + K \int_{B(x, \rho)} |z(\xi) - z(x)| \rho^{-\gamma} \varphi[(\xi - x)/\rho] d\xi ; \\ &= F \rho(x) = \int_{B(x, \rho)} f[\xi, z(\xi), \nabla z(\xi)] \cdot \rho^{-\gamma} \varphi[(\xi - x)/\rho] d\xi \end{split}$$

Integrating (4.2.6) over D and using Lemmas 2.4.2 and 4.2.6, we get

(4.2.7) I 
$$(zp,D) \leq I(z, G) + Kp[|G| + 2 \int_{G} |\nabla z(x)| dx]$$
.

Clearly, the corresponding inequalities hold for the  $z_np$ .

Now, if  $z_n - z$  in  $L_1(G)$ ,  $z_{np}$  and  $\nabla z_{np}$  tend uniformly on  $\overline{D}$  to  $z_{\rho}$  and  $\nabla z_{\rho}$ , respectively, and  $\|z_{n}\|_{1}^{2} \leq M$  for all n. Hence for each  $\rho < \rho_0$  , we have

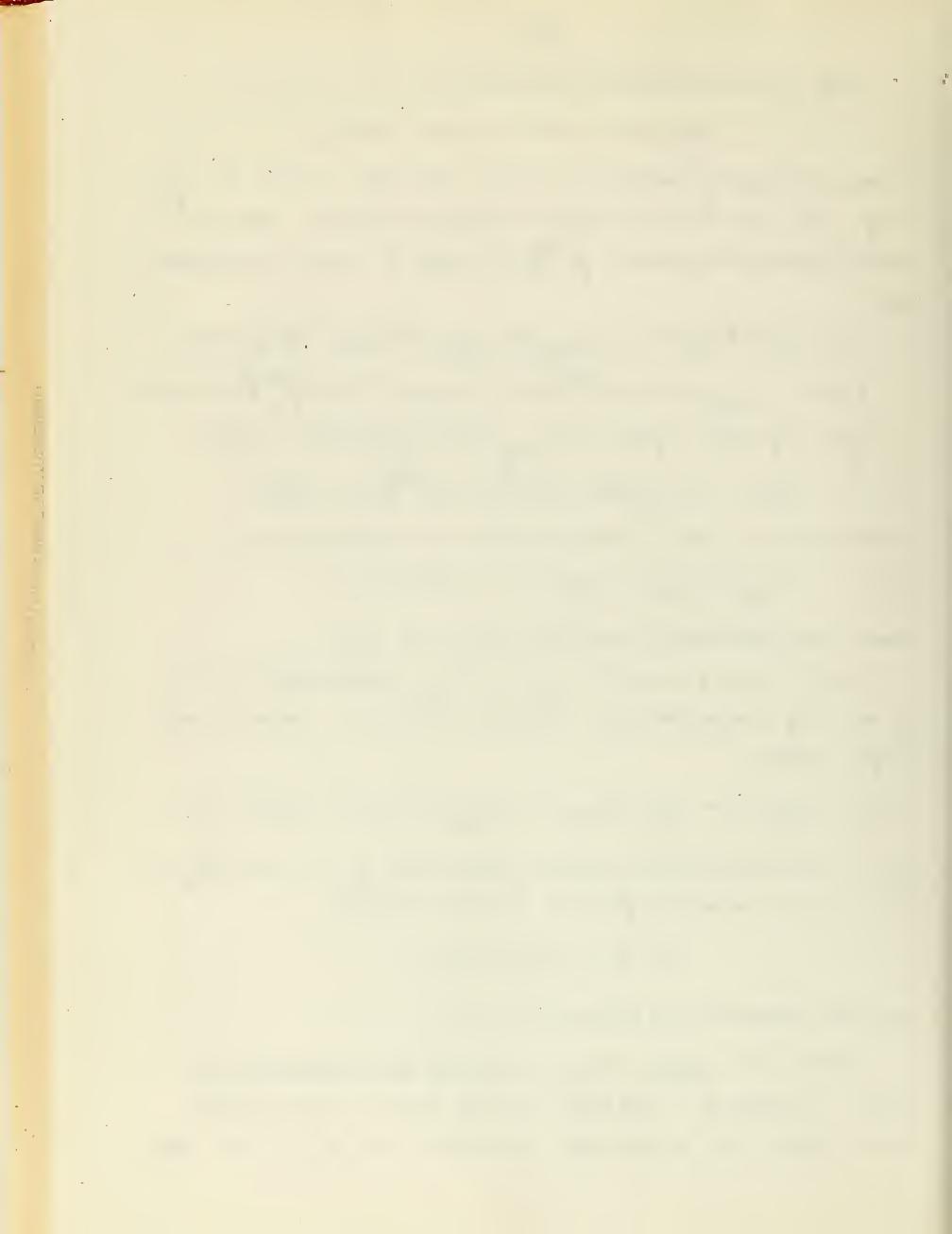
(4.2.8) 
$$I(z_p, D) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I(z_{np}, D) \leq \liminf_{n\to\infty} I(z_{n-1}, G) + Kp(|G| + M)$$
.

Since f satisfies a uniform Lipschitz condition and  $z_{\rho} \longrightarrow z$  and  $\nabla z_{\rho} \longrightarrow$  $\nabla_z$  in  $L_1(D)$ , we may let  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$  in (4.2.8) obtaining

$$I(z, D) \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf I(z_n, G)$$

The result follows from the arbitrariness of D .

THEOREM 4.2.1: Suppose f(x,z,p) is defined and continuous for all (x,z,p), is convex in p for each (x,z) and  $f(x,z,p) \ge f_0(p)$  for all (x,z,p) where  $f_0(p)$  is convex and  $f_0(p)/|p| \longrightarrow + \infty$  as  $p \longrightarrow \infty$ . Then



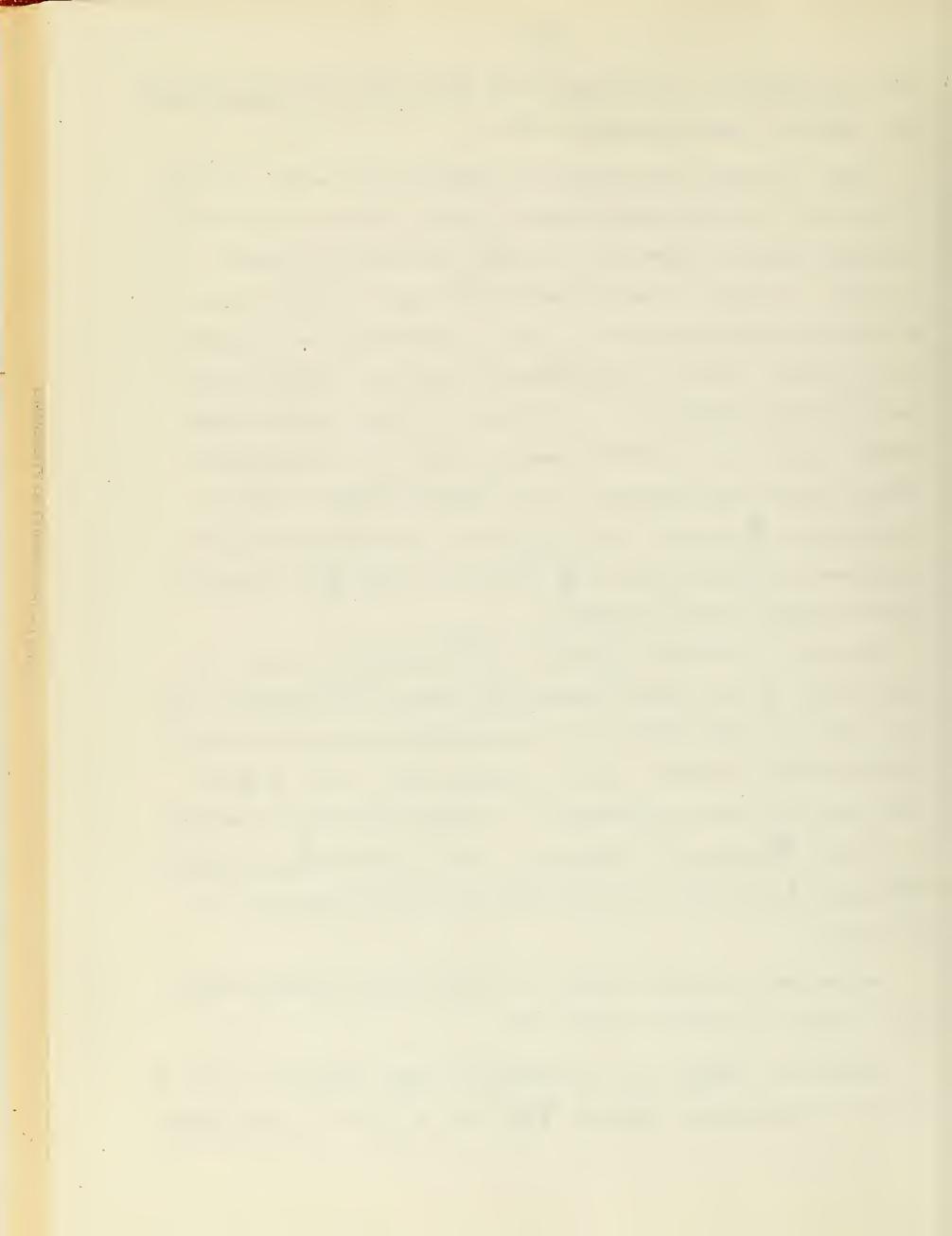
I(z, G) is finite or  $+\infty$  for each z in  $H_1^1(G)$  and is lower semicontinuous with respect to weak convergence in  $H_1^1(G)$ .

Proof: In order to prove this, it is sufficient to show that f(x,z,p) is the limit of a non-decreasing sequence  $f_n(x,z,p)$  each of which has the properties required in Lemma 4.2.8. In order to do this, let b(x,z;a) (a = {a<sub>i</sub><sup> $\alpha$ </sup>}) be chosen so that the function  $\psi(x,z;p;a) \equiv a_i^{\alpha} p_{\alpha}^i + b(x,z;a)$  is the unique supporting plane (in p) to f determined by a . By Lemmas 4.2.4 and 4.2.5, b(x,z;a) is continuous in (x,z;a) and  $b(x,z;a) \geq b_0(a)$ , the corresponding function for  $f_0$ . For each a, choose a non-decreasing sequence  $b_n(x,z;a)$  of functions, each  $b_0(a) - 1$ , each satisfying a uniform Lipschitz condition for all (x,z), which converges to b(x,z;a). We then define  $\phi_n(x,z,p;a) = a_i^{\alpha} p_{\alpha}^i + b_n(x,z;a)$  and we see that  $\phi_n$  is a non-decreasing sequence tending to  $\phi_n(x,z;a)$  and  $\phi_n(x,z;a)$  satisfying a uniform Lipschitz condition everywhere.

For each n, we define  $f_n(x,z,p) = \max \varphi_n(x,z,p;a)$  for all a for which all the  $a_1^\alpha$  are rational numbers having numerator and denominator both  $\leq n$ . Then it is clear that the  $f_n$  are non-decreasing and each satisfies a uniform Lipschitz condition. Now, let  $(x_0,z_0,p_0)$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Using Lemma 4.2.5 and the continuity of b, we see that there is a rational  $\overline{a}$  such that  $\varphi(x_0,z_0,p_0;\overline{a}) > f(x_0,z_0,p_0) - \epsilon/2$ . Clearly  $\varphi_n(x_0,z_0,p_0;\overline{a}) > \varphi(x_0,z_0,p_0;\overline{a}) - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ , for all sufficiently large n, so that  $f_n(x_0,z_0,p_0) \longrightarrow f(x_0,z_0,p_0)$ .

We now turn to existence theorems. We begin with the following theorem (cf. [ ] and [ ], theorem 8.8 and [ ]):

LEMMA 4.2.9: Suppose  $f_0(p)$  is convex in p and  $f_0(p)/|p| \longrightarrow + \infty$  as  $p \longrightarrow \infty$ . Then there is a function  $\varphi(p) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $p \longrightarrow 0$  which depends



only on f and M such that if  $I_0(z,G) \leq M$ , then  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} |\tilde{V}z(x)| dx \leq \varphi[m(e)].$ 

Proof: For each integer  $r \ge 1$ , let  $E_r$  be the set of x in G where  $r-1 \le |\nabla z(x)| < r$  and  $\nabla z(x)$  exists and let

$$E_{r} = \bigcup_{k=r+1}^{\infty} E_{k} \cup Z$$
,  $r = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

where Z is the set of measure 0 where  $\nabla z(x)$  does not exist. Clearly  $\mathcal{E}_0 = 0$  and if  $r \ge 1$  and  $x \in G - \mathcal{E}_r$ , then  $|\nabla z(x)| < r$ . Let  $\alpha_r$  be the inf. of  $f_0(p)/|p|$  for  $|p| \ge r - 1$ . Then  $\alpha_r \longrightarrow +\infty$  as  $r \longrightarrow \infty$ . Also

$$\sum_{k=r+1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \cdot (k-1) \cdot m(E_k) \leq \int_{G} f_0(\nabla z) dx \leq M$$

From this we see that

$$m(\mathcal{E}_r) \leq \frac{M}{r \cdot \alpha_{r+1}}$$
,  $\int_{\mathcal{E}_r} |\nabla z| dx \leq \frac{(r+1)M}{r \cdot \alpha_{r+1}}$ 

and both  $\longrightarrow$  0 as  $r\longrightarrow \infty$ . So, let e be any measurable subset of G. Let r be the smallest integer such that  $M/r_{\alpha_{r+1}} \le m(e)$ . Then

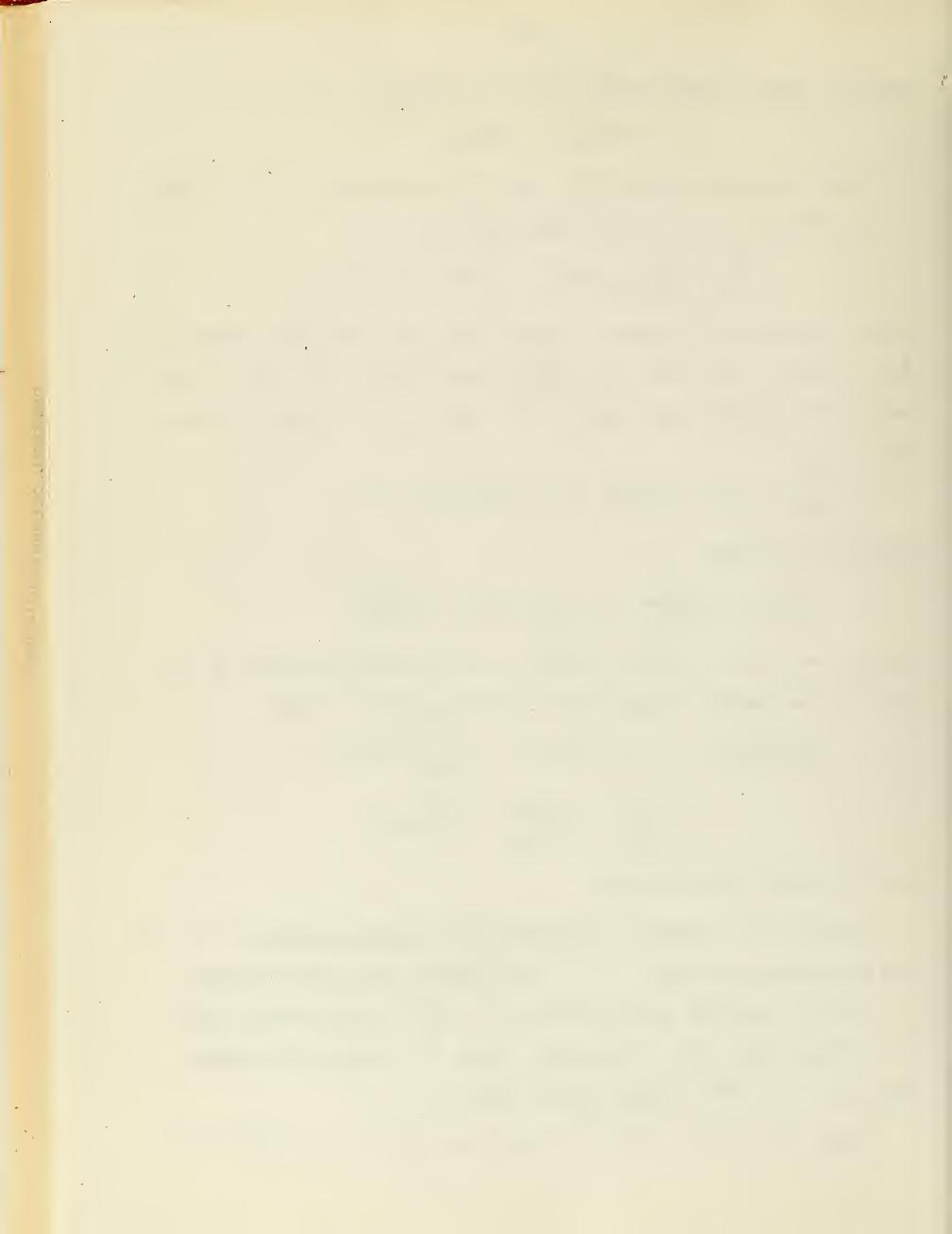
$$\int_{\mathbf{e}} |\nabla z| dx \leq \int_{\mathbf{e} - \mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla z| dx + \int_{\mathbf{e} \cap \mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla z| dx$$

$$\leq \frac{M}{\alpha_{\mathbf{r}+1}} + \frac{(\mathbf{r}+1)M}{\mathbf{r} \cdot \alpha_{\mathbf{r}+1}} = \mathcal{P}[\mathbf{m}(\mathbf{e})]$$

and  $\varphi$  satisfies the conditions.

THEOREM 4.2.2: Suppose f satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 4.2.1, G is a bounded domain of class C', F is a bounded closed set of functions  $z_1^* \in L_1(\partial G)$ , and there is some function  $z_1 \in H_1^1(G)$  whose boundary values  $z_1^* \in H_1^1(G)$  which  $z_1^* \in H_1^1(G)$  is finite. Then  $z_1^* \in H_1^1(G)$  takes on its minimum among all  $z_1^* \in H_1^1(G)$  having boundary values in F.

<u>Proof</u>: For, let  $F_1$  be the non-empty family of all z in  $H_1^1(G)$  for



which z has boundary values in F and  $I(z, G) \leq I(z_1, G)$ . From Lemma 4.2.9 and Theorems 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 it follows that  $F_1$  is compact with respect to weak convergence in  $H_1^1(G)$ . The result follows from the lower-semi-continuity.

EXAMPLES: The problem of Plateau reduces to minimizing the Dirichlet integral among all vectors whose boundary values give a representation of the given boundary curve in space. If only an arc of the boundary is prescribed, the remaining part of the boundary being free, we arrive at a type of problem which can be handled using Theorem 4.2.2 and the result of the exercise below.

## EXERCISE

Suppose G is of class C',  $\sigma$  is an open set on  $\partial G$ . Show that there is a  $C(\gamma)$ , p, G,  $\sigma$ ) of such that  $\|u\|_{p,G}^1 \leq C(\|\nabla u\|_p^0 + \|u\|_{p,\sigma}^0)$ .

4.3 Preliminary results on interior differentiability. In this section, we show that the derivatives of the solutions of certain minimum problems are bounded on interior domains. The method used is an adaptation by a student

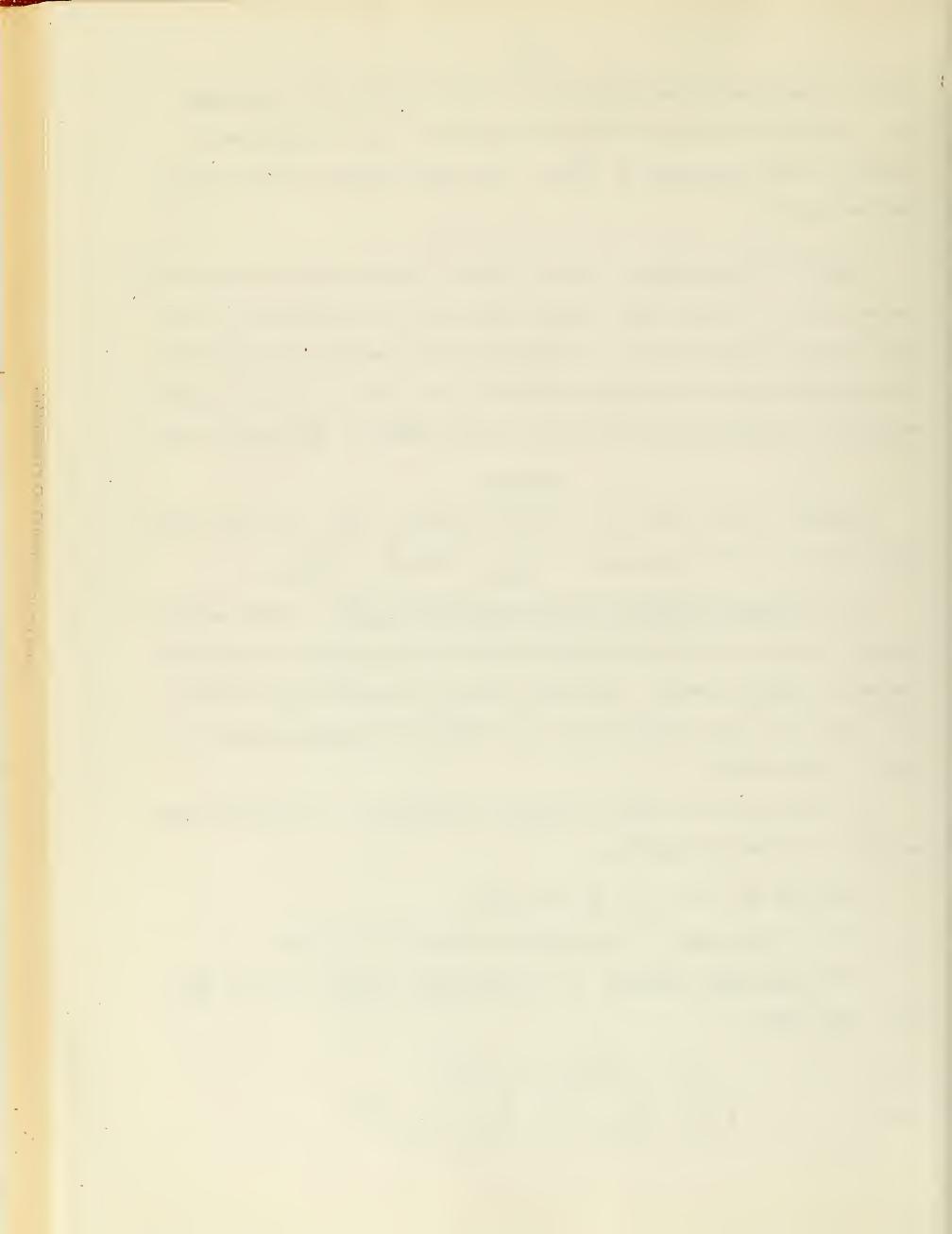
E. R. Buley of a very simple proof of the famous De Giorgi-Nash results [ ] and [ ] due to Maser [ ].

In this section, we restrict ourselves to functions f in (4.1.11) which satisfy the following conditions:

CONDITIONS ON f(x, z, p) in (4.1.11):

- (i) f is of class C" for all (x, z, p); N = 1;  $\mathcal{V} > 2$ ;
- (ii) there exist constants k, m, M, M, and K with  $0 < m \le M$  and  $k \ge 1$  such that

(4.3.1) m 
$$mV^{k} - K \le f(x, z, p) \le MV^{k}$$
,



$$\sum [f_{p_{\alpha}z}^{2} + f_{zz}^{2}] \le M_{1}V^{2k-2}, \quad V = 1 + z^{2} + |p|^{2}$$

$$(14.3.3) \quad mV^{k-1}|\lambda|^{2} \le f_{p_{\alpha}p} \quad \lambda_{\alpha}\lambda_{\beta} \le MV^{k-1}|\lambda|^{2}$$

for all  $\lambda$  and all (x, z, p).

ALTERNATE CONDITIONS ON f: The same as the above except that f is independent of z and  $V = 1 + |p|^2$ .

The proofs in case f satisfies the alternate conditions are essentially identical with those for the case that f satisfies the original conditions and will be omitted. We notice that  $f = V^k$  satisfies either set of conditions and any f above satisfies the conditions of the preceding section. For the remainder of this section, we assume that f satisfies the original conditions above.

THEOREM 4.3.1: Suppose z & H2k(G) and minimizes I(z) among all z with the same boundary values.

(4.3.4) 
$$\int_{G} (\zeta_{,\alpha} f_{p_{\alpha}} + \zeta f_{z}) dx = 0 \text{ for all } \zeta \in H^{1}_{2kO}(G).$$

Proof: Since  $z + \lambda \zeta \in H^1_{2k}$ , our hypotheses imply that  $I(z + \lambda \zeta) = \varphi(\lambda)$ is bounded for all  $\lambda$  and any  $\zeta \in H^1_{2k,0}$ . For almost all x,

$$f[x, z+\lambda\zeta, \nabla z + \lambda\nabla\zeta] = f[x,z,\nabla z] + \lambda\{\zeta, f_{\alpha} + \zeta f_{z}\}$$

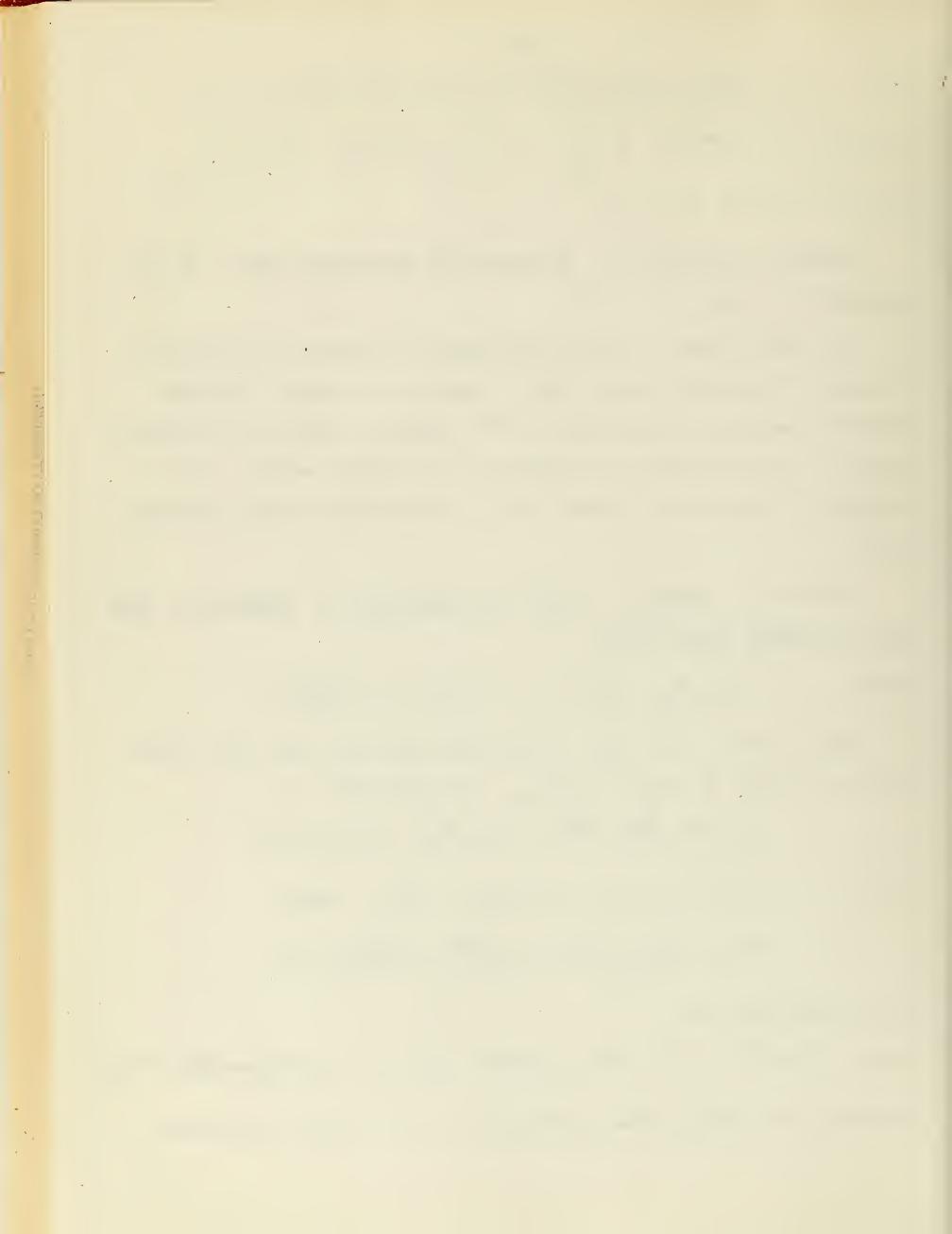
$$(4.3.5) + \lambda^{2}[A^{\alpha\beta}\zeta, \alpha\zeta, \beta + 2B^{\alpha}\zeta\zeta, \alpha + C\zeta^{2}], \text{ where}$$

$$A^{\alpha\beta}(x) = \int_{0}^{1} f_{\beta} p_{\beta} [x,z + t\lambda\zeta, \nabla z + t\lambda\nabla\zeta] dt, \text{ etc.}$$

The hypotheses imply that

$$(4.3.6) \quad \sum \left[ (A^{\alpha\beta})^2 + (B^{\alpha})^2 + C^2 \right] \leq \int_0^1 (\gamma M^2 + 2M_1) \left[ 1 + (z + t\lambda \zeta)^2 + |\gamma z + t\lambda \zeta|^2 \right]^{k-1} dt$$

Accordingly the integral of the coefficient of  $\lambda^2$  in (4.3.5) is uniformly



bounded for  $|\lambda| \le 1$ , say, so the result follows.

LEMMA 4.3.1: Suppose F  $C^1(E_p)$ , suppose each  $u^p \in H^1_{\lambda}(G)$  for some  $\lambda \geq 1$ , suppose  $U(x) = F[u^1(x), \ldots, u^p(x)]$  for  $x \in G$ , and suppose that U and the  $V_{\alpha} \in L\mu(G)$  for some  $\mu \geq 1$ ,  $\alpha = 1, \ldots, V$ , where  $V_{\alpha}(x) = \sum_{p=1}^{p} F_{p}[u^1(x), \ldots, u^p(x)]u^p_{\alpha}(x)$ ,  $x \in G$  (a.e.).

Then  $U \in H^{1}_{\mu}(G)$  and  $U_{\alpha}(x) = V_{\alpha}(x)$  almost everywhere.

<u>Proof:</u> From Theorem 2.5.5, we conclude that each element  $u^P$  contains a representative function  $\overline{u}$  which is absolutely continuous in  $x^a$  along segments in G for almost all  $x_\alpha^i$ ,  $\alpha=1$ , ..., V, and that its partial derivatives  $\overline{u}_{,\alpha}$  are representatives of  $u_{,\alpha}$ . If we set  $\overline{U}=F(\overline{u}_{,\alpha},\ldots,\overline{u}^P)$ , it follows that  $\overline{U}$  has the same property and, moreover, its partial derivatives are given by  $V_\alpha$  almost everywhere. But this implies that the element  $U \in H^1_\mu(G)$  with  $U_{,\alpha} = -\alpha$  a.e.; the proof of this is left to the reader.

THEOREM 4.3.2: Suppose  $z \in H_{2k}^1(G)$  and satisfies (4.3.4). Then, on each domain  $D \subset G$ , the  $p_{\gamma}$  and the function  $U = V^{k/2} \in H_2^1(D)$ , and the  $p_{\gamma}$  and  $p_{$ 

(4.3.7) 
$$\int_{D} V^{k-1} [\zeta_{,\alpha}(a^{\alpha}p_{\gamma,\beta} + b^{\alpha}p_{\gamma} + e^{\alpha\gamma}) + \zeta(b^{\alpha}p_{\gamma,\alpha} + cp_{\gamma} + f^{\gamma})] dx = 0$$

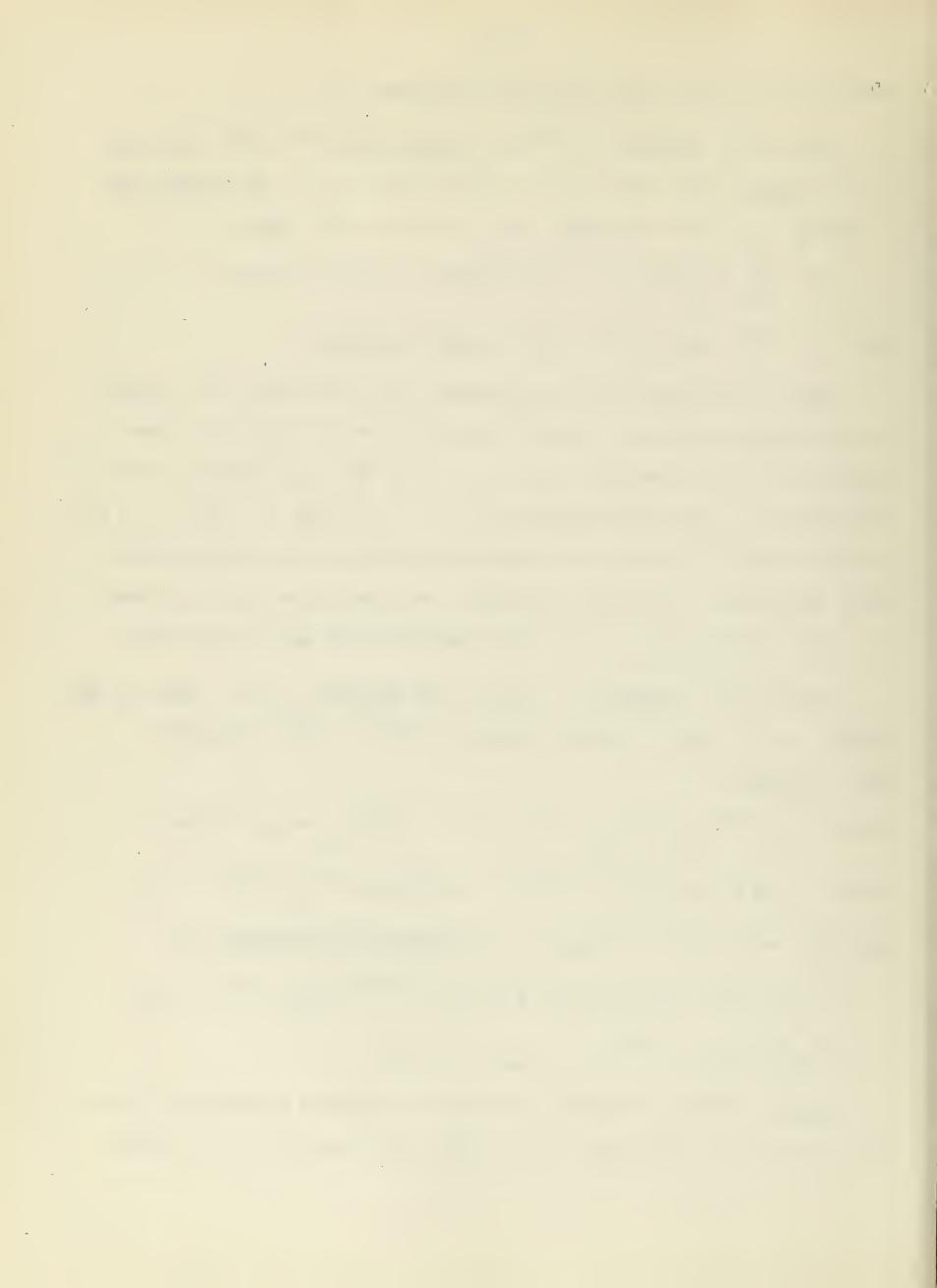
$$(4.3.8) \int_{D} |\nabla u|^{2} dx \le k^{2} \int_{D} |\nabla^{k-1}(|\nabla p|^{2} + |p|^{2}) dx \le Ca^{-2} \int_{D'} |\nabla^{k} dx|, D \subset D'_{\alpha},$$

where the  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ ,  $b^{\alpha}$ , c,  $e^{\alpha\gamma}$ , and  $f^{\gamma}$  are bounded and measurable and

$$V^{k-1}(x)a^{\alpha\beta}(x) = f_{p_{\alpha}p_{\beta}}[x, z(x), \nabla z(x)], V^{k-1}b^{\alpha} = f_{p_{\alpha}z}, V^{k-1}c = f_{zz},$$

$$v^{k-q}e^{\alpha\gamma} = f_{p_{\alpha}x\gamma}$$
,  $v^{k-q} f^{\gamma} = f_{zx\gamma}$ ,  $q = 1/2$ .

Proof: We begin by applying the difference quotient procedure of § 3.2. Let  $D \subset D' \subset G$  and suppose  $\zeta \in H^1_{2k,0}(G)$  with support in D', suppose



D'C  $G_{h_0}$  , suppose  $1 \le \gamma \le \gamma$  and  $e_{\gamma}$  is the unit vector in the  $\boldsymbol{x}^{\gamma}$  direction, and define

 $\zeta_h(x) = h^{-1}[\zeta(x - he_{\gamma}) - \zeta(x)]$ ,  $z_h(x) = h^{-1}[z(x + he_{\gamma}) - z(x)]$ ,  $0 < |h| < h_0$ . Substituting  $\zeta_h$  for  $\zeta$  in (4.3.4) and making the obvious changes of variables to eliminate  $\zeta(x = he_{\gamma})$ , etc., we obtain

and similar formulas holds for the other coefficients. From our hypotheses, it follows that all the coefficients  $a_h^{\mathfrak{G}}$ ,  $b_h^{\mathfrak{G}}$ ,  $c_h^{\mathfrak{G}}$ ,  $r_h^{\mathfrak{G}}$ , and  $f_h^{\mathfrak{G}}$  are measurable and are bounded independently of h on D' by numbers depending only on  $\mathfrak{I}$ ,  $\mathfrak{I}$ ,  $\mathfrak{I}$ , and k. We also have

(4.3.10)  $A_h \rightarrow A$  in  $L_{\lambda}(D')$  and  $z_h \rightarrow p_{\gamma}$  in  $L_{2k}(D')$ ,  $\lambda = k/(k-1)$  if k > 1;  $A = V^{k-1}$ ; if k = 1,  $A_h = 1$ .

Now if  $\eta$  is Lipschitz and has support in D' and if  $0 < |h| < h_0$ , we may set

(4.3.11) 
$$\zeta = \eta^2 z_h$$
,  $\eta = 1$  in D,

in (4.3.9). From our hypotheses, we obtain

(4.3.12) 
$$m|\lambda|^2 \le a_h^{\alpha\beta}(x)\lambda_{\alpha}\lambda_{\beta} \le M|\lambda|^2$$
 for  $0 \le |h| < h_0$ ,  $x \in D'$ .



Using the boundedness of the coefficients and Schwarz's inequality, we thus obtain the result that

$$(4.3.13) \quad \int_{D} A_{h}(x) |\nabla z_{h}(x)|^{2} dx \leq C \int_{D} (\eta^{2} + |\nabla \eta|^{2}) A_{h}(x) [z_{h}^{2} + P_{h}] dx$$
 and the right side is bounded independenly of h since  $V^{k} \in L_{h}(G)$ .

Since  $k \ge 1$  and  $z_h \to p_{\gamma}$  in  $L_{2k}(D')$ , it follows from (4.3.13) and the fact that  $A_h(x) \ge 1$  that  $z_h \to p_{\gamma}$  in  $H_2^1(D)$  for a subsequence of  $h \to 0$ . From (4.3.10) and (4.3.13), it follows that

(4.3.14)  $\zeta_{,\alpha}^{A_h^q} \longrightarrow \zeta_{,\alpha}^{A_h^q}$  and  $A_h^q a_h^{\alpha\beta} z_{h,\beta} \longrightarrow A^q a^{\alpha\beta} p_{\gamma,\beta}$  in  $L_2(D)$ , etc. for any  $\zeta \in H^1_{2k,0}(D)$  for a further subsequence of  $h \longrightarrow 0$ . Accordingly, we see that each  $p_{\gamma} \in H^1_2(D) \cap L_{2k}(D)$  and, by semicontinuity,

$$(4.3.15) \qquad \int_{D} v^{k-1} |\nabla p|^{2} dx \leq Ca^{-2} \int_{D} v^{k} dx \quad \text{if} \quad D \subset D'_{a};$$

this last follows from (4.3.13) by taking  $\eta = 1$  on D,  $\eta(x) = 1$  -2a<sup>-1</sup>d(x, D) for  $0 \le d(x, D) \le a/2$ , and  $\eta(x) = 0$  elsewhere on D'. From the convergence in (4.3.14), we see that the p<sub>\gamma</sub> satisfy (4.3.7). That U \varepsilon H<sub>2</sub>(D) and (4.3.8) holds follows from Lemma 4.3.1 and (4.3.15)

The proofs of the following two lemmas are left to the reader:

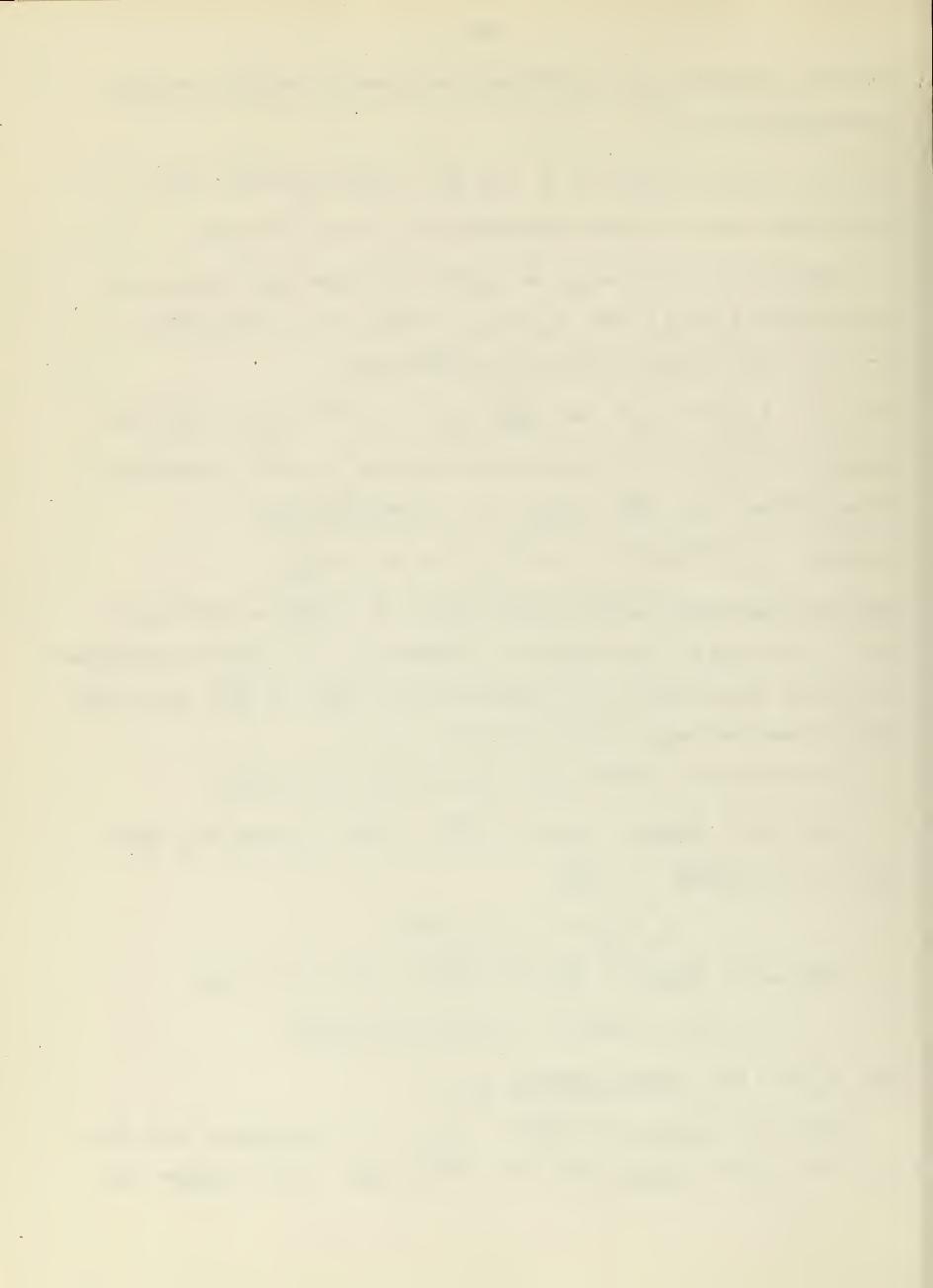
LEMMA 4.3.2: Suppose  $\zeta$  and  $B \in H_1^1(D)$ ,  $\Lambda(\zeta) \subset D$ , and  $\zeta B$ , and  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$  and  $\zeta$ 

$$\int_{\mathbb{D}} \zeta B_{\gamma} dx = -\int_{\mathbb{D}} \zeta_{\gamma} B dx$$

LEMMA 4.3.3: Suppose B and  $A^{\alpha} \in H_{1}^{1}(D)$ ,  $\alpha = 1$ , ...,  $\gamma$  and  $\int_{D} (A^{\alpha} \zeta_{,\alpha} + B\zeta) dx = 0 \text{ for all } \zeta \in \text{Lip}_{\mathbf{c}}(D).$ 

Then  $A^{\alpha}(x) = B(x)$  almost everywhere on D.

LEMMA 4.3.4: Suppose  $A^{\alpha} \in H_1^1(D)$ ,  $\alpha = 1, ..., V$  and suppose  $\zeta$ ,  $\psi$ ,  $\psi \zeta$ , and  $\psi^{-1}A^{\alpha} \in H_2^L(D)$ , suppose  $\psi V \zeta$  and  $\psi^{-1}V A^{\alpha}$  all  $\epsilon L_2(D)$ , suppose  $\psi(x)$ 



 $\geq$  1 a.e. on D, and suppose  $\wedge(\zeta) \subset D$ . Then

$$\int_{D} (\zeta_{\alpha} A_{\gamma}^{\alpha} - \zeta_{\gamma} A_{\alpha}^{\alpha}) dx = 0$$

<u>Proof:</u> For each n, let  $\psi_{n(x)} = \psi(x)$  if  $\psi(x) < n$  and  $\psi_{n}(x) = n$  on the set  $E_n$  where  $\psi(x) \ge n$ ; and define

(4.3.16) 
$$\omega = \psi \xi$$
,  $C^{\alpha} = \psi^{-1}A^{\alpha}$ ,  $\xi_{n} = \psi_{n}^{-1}\omega$ ,  $A_{n}^{\alpha} = \psi_{n}C^{\alpha}$ ,  $\chi = \ln \psi$ 

We note that  $\nabla \psi_n = 0$  a.e. on  $E_n$  and that

(4.3.17) 
$$\omega \nabla \chi$$
 and  $C^{\alpha} \chi_{\varepsilon} L_{2}(D)$ .

By hypothesis,  $\omega$  and  $C^{\alpha} \in H_2^1(D)$ . Moreover  $\nabla \zeta_n = \nabla \zeta$  a.e. on  $D - E_n$  and  $\nabla \zeta_n = \psi_n^{-1} \nabla \omega$  a.e. on  $E_n$ , so  $\zeta_n \in H_2^1(D)$ . Also

$$\nabla A_n^{\alpha} = \psi_n (\nabla C^{\alpha} + C^{\alpha} \nabla X)$$
 a.e. on  $D - E_n$ 

$$\nabla A_n^\alpha = \psi_n \nabla C^\alpha$$
 a.e. on  $E_n$ 

so that each  $A_n^{\alpha} \in H_2^{1}(D)$ .

Let us define

(4.3.18)  $J_n(x) = \zeta_{n,\alpha} A_{n,\gamma}^{\alpha} - \zeta_{n,\gamma} A_{n\alpha}^{\alpha}$ ,  $J(x) = \zeta_{,\alpha} A_{,\gamma}^{\alpha} - \zeta_{,\gamma} A_{,\alpha}^{\alpha}$ ,  $J_0 = \omega_{,\alpha} C_{,\gamma}^{\alpha} - \omega_{,\gamma} C_{,\alpha}^{\alpha}$ Since  $\Lambda(\zeta_n) = \Lambda(\zeta) \subset D$ , it is easy to see by approximating to  $\zeta_n$  and  $A_n^{\alpha}$  by mollified functions that

Moreover  $J(x) = J_n(x)$  a.e. on  $D - E_n$ . On  $E_n$ , we see that

$$J_{n}(x) = J_{0}(x)$$
 a.e.

(4.3.20)

$$J(x) = J_0(x) + \omega_{\alpha}(c^{\alpha}X_{\gamma}) + (\omega X_{\gamma})c^{\alpha}_{\alpha} - (\omega_{\alpha})c^{\alpha}_{\gamma} - \omega_{\gamma}(c^{\alpha}X_{\alpha}).$$

The result follows from (4.3.17) - (4.3.20)

LEMMA 4.3.5: Suppose  $z \in H^1_{2k}(G)$  and satisfies (4.3.4), suppose  $U = V^{k/2}$  and suppose that  $U \in L_{2\tau}(D')$ ,  $D' \subset G$ ,  $\tau \geq 1$ . Then  $w = U^{\tau} \in H^1_2(D)$  for



each DCCD' and

$$\int_{D} |\nabla w|^{2} dx \le C\tau^{2}a^{-2} \int_{D} w^{2} dx$$
 if  $D D_{\alpha}', C = C(m, M, K, M_{1}, k, V)$ .

<u>Proof:</u> For each L, let  $U_L(x) = U(x)$  if U(x) < L and  $U_L(x) = L$  on the set  $E_L$  where  $U(x) \ge L$ . Suppose  $\eta$  is defined as in the proof of Theorem 4.3.2 and, for each L, define

(4.3.21) 
$$\zeta = \eta^2 U_L^{2\tau-2} p_{\gamma}$$
,  $A^{\alpha} = f_{p_{\alpha}}$ ,  $B = f_{z}$ ,  $\psi = V^{(k-1)/2}$ 

Then we notice that  $\bigwedge(\zeta) \subset D'$  and  $\zeta$ ,  $\psi$ ,  $\psi\zeta$ ,  $\psi^{-1}A^{\alpha} \in H_{2}^{1}(D')$ ,  $A^{\alpha}$  and  $B \in H_{1}^{1}(D)$ ,  $\zeta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta$  a

So, although  $\zeta$ , as defined by (4.3.21) is not in  $H_{2k,0}^1(D^i)$ , Lemmas 4.3.2, 4.3.3, and 4.3.4 allow us to substitute  $\zeta$  into (4.3.7), since the left side of (4.3.7) just becomes

$$\int_{D} (\zeta_{\alpha} A^{\alpha}_{\gamma} + \zeta_{\beta}) dx = \int_{D} (\zeta_{\alpha} A^{\alpha}_{\gamma} - \zeta_{\gamma} \beta) dx = \int_{D} (\zeta_{\alpha} A^{\alpha}_{\gamma} - \zeta_{\gamma} A^{\alpha}) dx = 0$$

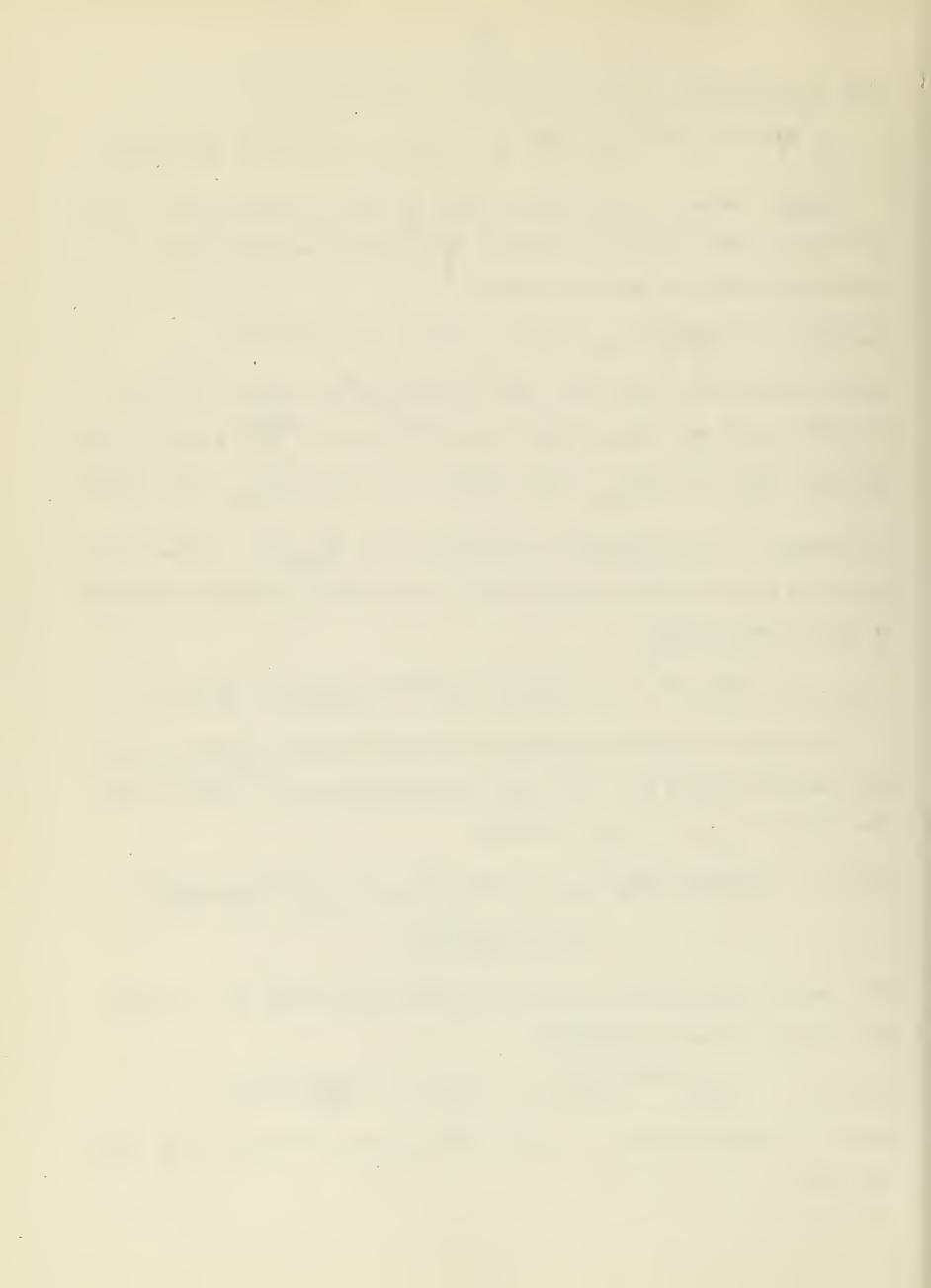
If we carry out this substitution and use the Schwarz inequality, etc., the condition (4.3.12) for  $a^{\alpha\beta}$ , etc., the boundedness of  $U_L$  and the fact that  $\nabla U_L = 0$  a.e. on  $E_L$ , we obtain

$$\frac{(4.3.23)}{D} \int_{D} |\mathbf{\nabla} u_{L}^{2\tau-2} [|\mathbf{\nabla} u|^{2} + (\tau - 1)|\mathbf{\nabla} u_{L}^{2}] dx \leq C \int_{D} |\mathbf{u}_{L}^{2\tau-2} [(\mathbf{\eta}^{2} + |\mathbf{\nabla} \eta^{2}) u^{2} + (\tau - 1)\mathbf{\eta}^{2} u_{L}^{2}] dx$$

But since the right side of (4.3.23) is bounded independently of L, we may let L ->  $\infty$  in (4.3.23) to obtain

$$(4.3.24) \int_{D} \eta^{2} u^{2\tau-2} |\nabla u|^{2} dx \leq c \int_{D} (\eta^{2} + |\eta^{2}|^{2}) u^{2\tau} dx$$

where C is independent of  $\tau$ . But (4.3.24) and the definition of  $\eta$  imply the result.



THEOREM 4.3.3: Suppose  $z \in H^1_{2k}(G)$  and satisfies (4.3.4). Then, on each  $D \subset G$ , z and the  $p_{\gamma}$  are uniformly bounded. In fact, there is a constant C = C(V), m, M, K,  $M_1$ , k) such that

$$|U(x)|^2 \le C \cdot |B(x_0, 2R)|^{-1} \int_{B(x_0, 2R)} |U(y)|^2 dy, x \in B(x_0, R), B(x_0, 2R) \subset G.$$

Proof: To prove this, we combine Lemma 4.3.5 with Theorems 2.5.3 and 2.5.4 which together state that

$$(1.3.25) \left\{ \int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} \mathbf{\omega}^{2s} dx \right\}^{1/s} \le C_0(\mathbf{v}) \int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} (|\nabla w|^2 + \mathbf{r}^{-2}w^2) dx, s = \mathcal{V}/(\mathbf{v} - 2)$$

if w  $\epsilon$  H<sub>2</sub>(B<sub>r</sub>). Let us assume that B(x<sub>0</sub>, 2R)  $\subset$  G, define B<sub>n</sub> = B(x<sub>0</sub>, R<sub>n</sub>) where R<sub>n</sub> = R(1 + 2<sup>-n</sup>), n  $\geq$  0, and let us define

$$w_n = U^{s^n}$$
 so  $w_n = w_{n-1}^{s}$ ,  $w_0 = U$ .

Then, by applying Lemma 4.3.5 to  $w_n$  in order with  $D = B_n$  and  $D' = B_{n-1}$ , we see that each  $w_n \in L_2(B_n)$  and to  $H_2^1(B_{n+1})$  for each n and that  $(4.3.26) \{ \int_{B_n} w_n^2 dx \}^{1/s} \le C_0 \int_{B_n} (|\nabla w_{n-1}|^2 + R_n^{-2} w_{n-1}^2) dx$ 

$$\leq 2C_0C_1s^{2n-2}$$
,  $\mu^nR^{-2}$   $\int_{B_{n-1}} w_{n-1}^2 dx$ .

If we define

$$W_n = \int_{B_n} w_n^2 dx,$$

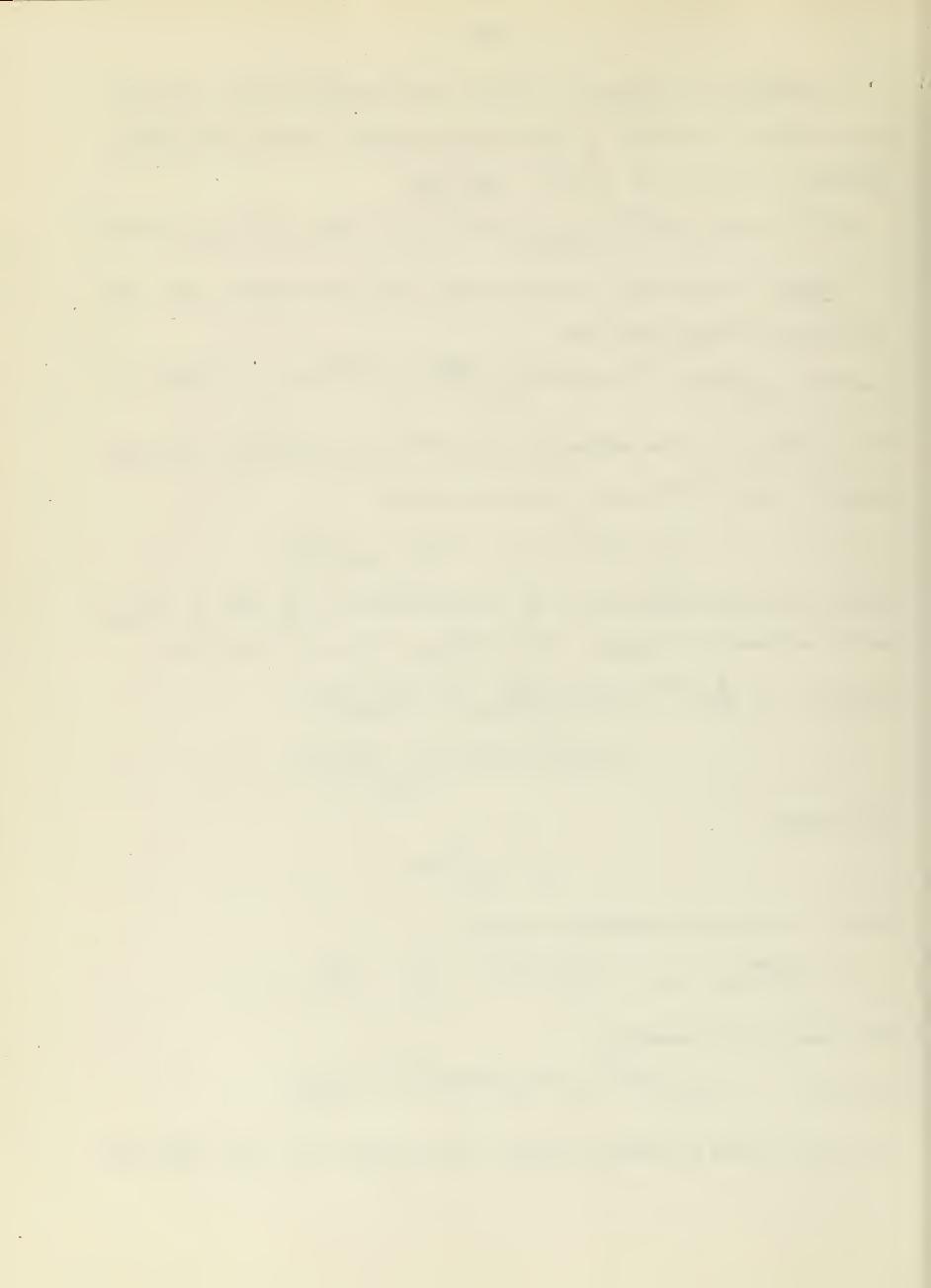
(4.3.26) leads to the recurrence relation

$$W_n \le K_0^s K_1^{ns} \tau_{n-1}^s$$
,  $K_0 = 2C_0 C_1 s^{-2} R^{-2}$ ,  $K_1 = 4s^2$ ,  $n \ge 1$ .

This leads to the inequality

$$(4.3.27) W_n \le K_0^{2+s^2} + \dots + s^n K_1^{ns} + (n-1)s^2 + \dots + s^n W_0^{s^n}$$

The result follows by raising both sides of (4.3.27) to the  $1/s^n$  power and



taking the limit as  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ . The multiplier of  $W_0$  in the limit is  $K_0^\alpha K_1^\beta , \alpha = (1-s^{-1})^{-1} = \sqrt[4]{2}, \beta = (1-s^{-1})^{-2} = \alpha^2 .$ 

## EXERCISES

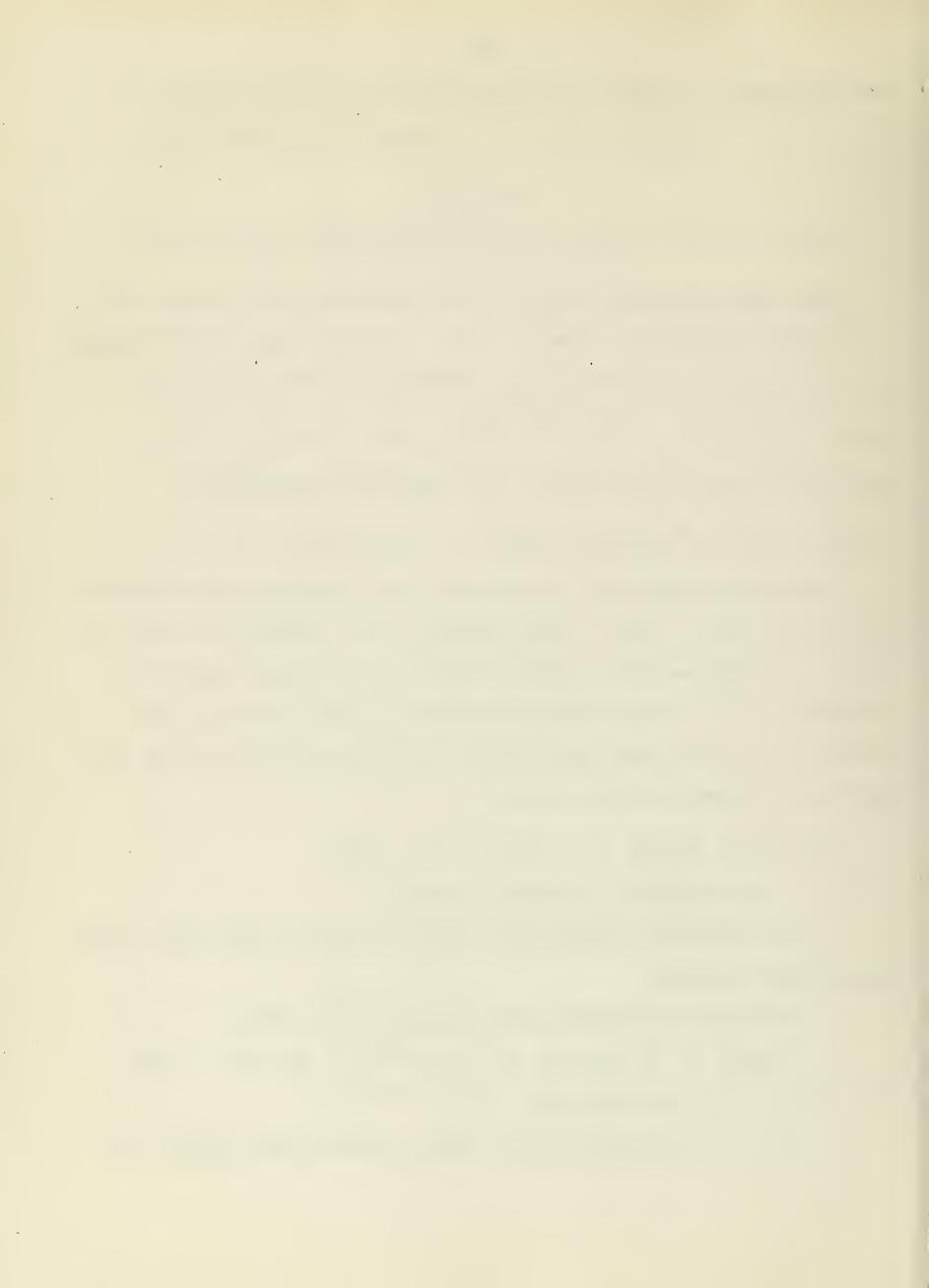
1. Complete the proof of Lemma 4.3.1. 2. Prove Lemmas 4.3.2 and 4.3.3.

4.4. Hölder continuity of the p<sub>Y</sub>. In this section, we show that the p<sub>Y</sub> are Hölder continuous on domains  $D \subset G$ . On such domains, we have already seen that they are bounded and each p<sub>Y</sub> satisfies an equation of the form  $(4.4.1) \int_{D} [\zeta_{,\alpha}(a^{\alpha\beta}u_{,\beta} + b^{\alpha}u + e^{\alpha}) + \zeta(c^{\alpha}u_{,\alpha} + du + f)] dx = 0 , \zeta \in H^{1}_{20}$  where all the coefficients, e, and f are bounded and measurable and  $(4.4.2) \quad m_{2} |\lambda|^{2} \leq a^{\alpha\beta}(x) \lambda_{\alpha} \lambda_{\beta} \leq H_{2} |\lambda|^{2}, \quad 0 \leq m_{2} \leq M_{2}, \quad x \in D.$ 

We shall first discuss the solutions of (4.4.1) in the case where all the  $b^{\alpha}$ ,  $c^{\alpha}$ , d,  $e^{\alpha}$ , and f are 0; the solutions of such equations are called a-harmonic. We shall present a version of Moser's theory of such equations as presented in [ ]. We first state some technical lemmas involving convex functions on  $E_1$ ; the reader should recall the theorems stated in Section 4-2 which held for convex functions on any  $E_N$ .

LEITMA 4.4.1: Suppose f is convex on E1 . Then

- (a) f is Lipschitz on any bounded interval.
- (b) Its right-sided and left-sided derivatives exist at each point and are non-decreasing functions.
  - (c) Its two-sided derivative exists except at M points.
- (d) If each  $f_n$  is convex on  $E_1$ ,  $f_n(u) \longrightarrow f(u)$  for each u, and  $f_n'(u_0)$  and  $f'(u_0)$  all exist, then  $f_n'(u_0) \longrightarrow f'(u_0)$ .
  - (e) If f is non-negative, there exists a non-decreasing sequence {f<sub>n</sub>}



of non-negative convex functions, each Lipschitz over the whole of  $E_1$ , such that  $f_n(u) \longrightarrow f(u)$  for each u; we may assume that each  $f_n(u) = f(u)$  on an interval  $I_n$  where  $I_n \subset I_{n+1}$ .

(f) If f is non-negative and Lipschitz over the whole of  $E_1$  and  $\varphi$  is any non-negative Friedrichs mollifier, the  $\varphi$ -mollified function f all have the same properties, the Lipschitz constant for f being one for each f  $\varphi$ .

LEMMA 4.4.2: Suppose  $u \in H^1_{\lambda}(D)$   $(\lambda \ge 1)$ . Then, if c is any constant,  $\nabla_{u}(x) = 0$  for almost all x on the set S where u(x) = c. If f is convex, v(x) = f[u(x)] on D,  $v \in L_{\mu}(D)$  and the functions  $V_{\alpha}$  defined by

$$V_{\alpha}(x) = D_{rid}[u(x)]u_{\alpha}(x) \in L_{\mu}(D)$$
,

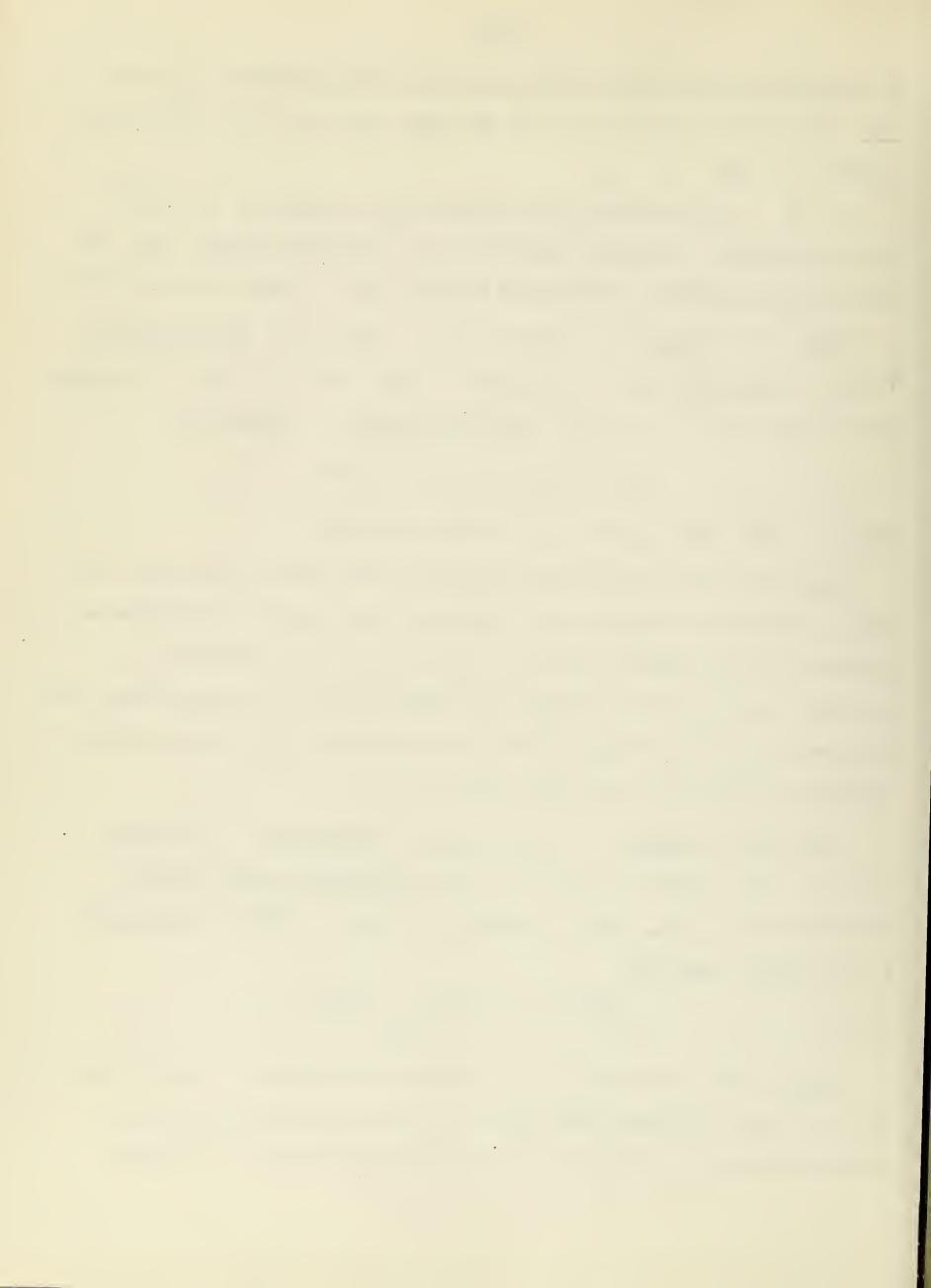
then  $v \mapsto H_{\mu}^{1}(D)$  and  $v_{\alpha}(x) = V_{\alpha}(x)$  almost everywhere.

<u>Proof:</u> The proof of the second statement is like that of Lemma 4.3.1. If |S| = 0, there is nothing to prove. Otherwise, let  $[a, b] \subset D$  and choose a representative  $\overline{u}$  which is A.C. in  $x^{\alpha}$  on  $[a^{\alpha}, b^{\alpha}]$  for almost all  $x^{\prime}_{\alpha}$ . For almost all  $x^{\prime}_{\alpha}$ , the set  $S(x^{\prime}_{\alpha})$  of  $x^{\alpha} \ni (x^{\alpha}, x^{\prime}_{\alpha}) \in S$  is measurable and, for for almost all  $x^{\alpha}$  in  $S(x^{\prime}_{\alpha})$ ,  $x^{\alpha}$  is a limit point of  $S(x^{\prime}_{\alpha})$  and the partial derivative  $\overline{u}_{,\alpha}(x^{\alpha}, x^{\prime}_{\alpha})$  exists and so must be 0.

LEMMA 4.4.3: Suppose  $u \in L_2(D)$  and is a-harmonic on D and suppose  $0 < b \le r$ ,  $B_{r+b} = B(x_0, r+b) \subset D$ , f is a non-negative convex function, v(x) = f[u(x)] on  $B_{r+b}$ , and  $v \in L_2(B_{r+b})$ . Then  $v \mapsto H_2^1(B_r)$  and there is a  $C = C(m_2/m_2)$  such that

(4.4.3) 
$$\int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla v|^{2} dx \leq Cb^{-2} \int_{B_{\mathbf{r}+b}} v^{2}(x) dx$$

<u>Proof:</u> First suppose that f is Lipschitz with constant K on the whole of  $E_1$ . Using mollifiers (Lemma 4.4.1(f)), we may approximate to f by similar functions  $f_n$  of class  $C^\infty$  with Lipschitz constant K. Letting



$$\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{n}}[\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{x})]$$
,  $\zeta = \mathbf{\omega} \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{n}}'(\mathbf{u})$  in  $(4.4.1)(\mathbf{b}^{\alpha} = ... \mathbf{f} = 0)$ , we obtain  $(4.4.4)$  
$$\int_{\mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{a}}} (\mathbf{\omega}_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{a}^{\alpha\beta} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n},\beta} + \omega_{\mathbf{n}}^{\alpha\beta} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n},\alpha}^{\alpha\beta} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n},\beta}) d\mathbf{x} = 0$$

From (4.4.4), we conclude

(4.4.5) 
$$\int_{B_{r+b}} \omega_{\alpha} a^{\alpha\beta} v_{n,\beta} dx \leq 0 \text{ if } \omega \geq 0.$$

Since  $|f_n| \le K$ ,  $v \in H_2^1(B_r)$  for r' < r so (4.4.5) holds for all  $\omega$   $H_{20}^1(B_{r+b})$  with compact support. Defining  $\eta$  as was done just before (4.3.24),  $\omega = \eta^2 v_n$ , we obtain

$$\int_{B_{r+a}} (\eta^{2} a^{\alpha \beta} v_{n,\alpha} v_{n,\beta} + 2 \eta \eta_{,\alpha} v_{n} a^{\alpha \beta} v_{n,\beta}) dx \leq 0$$

from which we conclude (4.4.3) for  $v_n$ , using the Schwarz inequality. Now as  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ ,  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \le K|\nabla u(x)|$ ,  $|v_n(x)| \le K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)|$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$  and  $|\nabla v_n(x)| \longrightarrow |\nabla v_n(x)| = K|u(x)| + C_1$ 

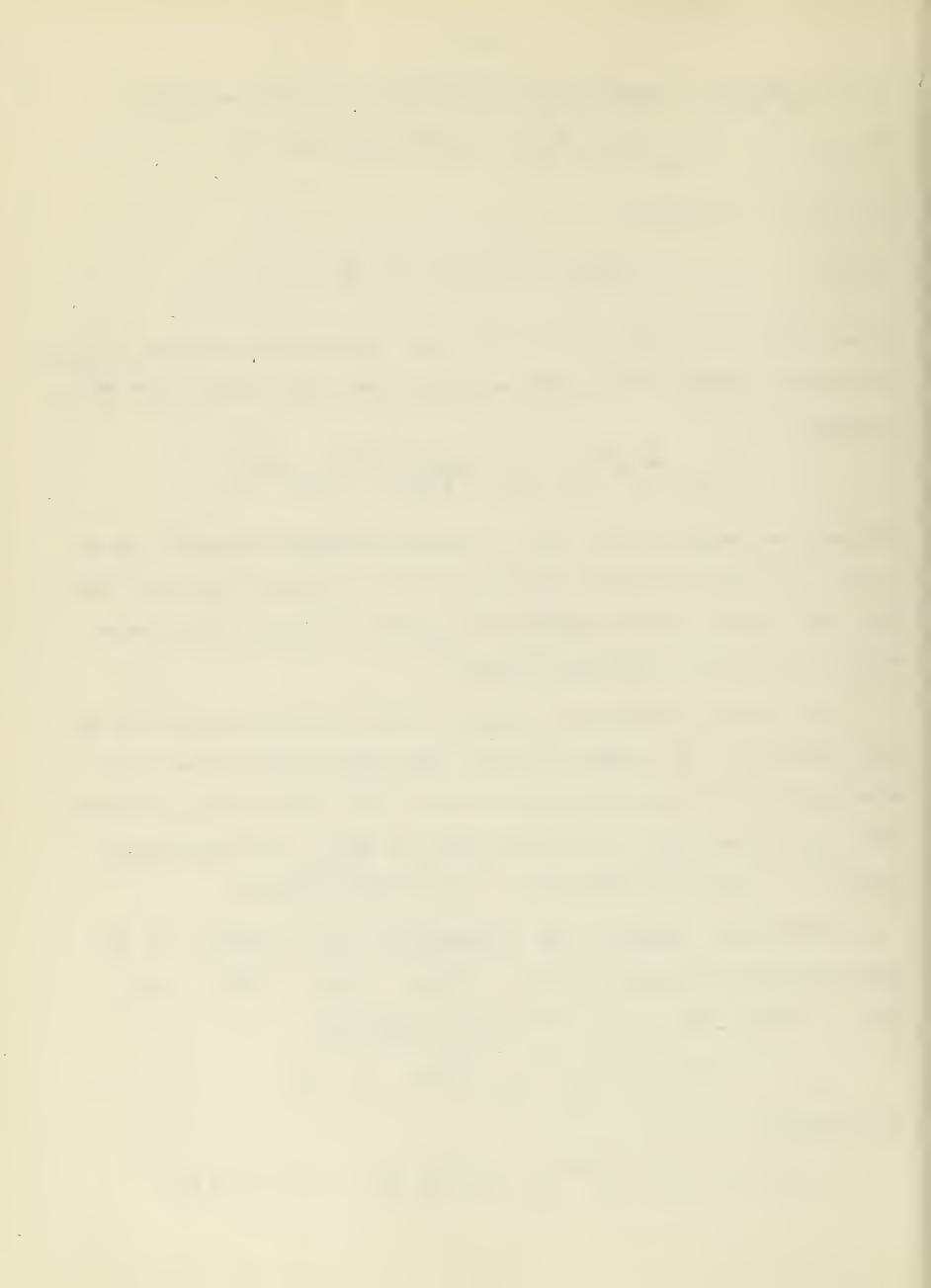
If f is not Lipschitz over the whole of  $E_1$ , we may approximate to it by such functions  $f_n$  as in Lemma 4.4.1 (d). Then  $v_n(x) \leq v(x)$  for each x, so we may let  $n \longrightarrow \infty$  on the right in (4.4.3). But, from (4.4.3), it follows that a subsequence of the  $v_n$  converge weakly in  $H_2^1(B_r)$  to something which must be v. Then (4.4.3) holds for v by lower-semicontinuity.

THEOREM 4.4.1: Suppose u is a-harmonic in  $B_{2R}$ , u  $\epsilon$   $L_2(B_{2R})$ , f is non-negative and convex, and  $v = f(u) \epsilon L_2(B_{2R})$ . Then  $v \epsilon H_2(B_r)$ , for each r < 2R and there is a C = C(V),  $M_2/m_2$  such that

$$|v(x)|^2 \le C|B_{2R}|^{-1} \int_{B_{2R}} v^2(y) dy$$
,  $x \in B_R$ .

More generally

$$|v(x)|^2 \le c_1(2R - r)^{-1} \int_{B_{2R}} |v(y)|^2 dy$$
 for  $x \in B_r$ ,  $r < 2R$ .



The proof is like that of the last part of Theorem 4.3.3 and is left to the reader.

LEMMA 4.4.4: Suppose f is a function such that h = -e<sup>-f</sup> is convex and suppose u is a-harnomic on  $B_{r+b}$  and u  $\in L_2B_{r+b}$ ), where  $0 < b \le r$ .

Then  $v = f(u) \in H_2^1(B_r)$  and

$$\int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla v|^2 dx \leq Cb^{-2} \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{v}}, C = C(\mathbf{v}), M_2(m_2).$$

Proof: Suppose first that  $f \in C^2$  and is Lipschitz for u. Let  $\zeta = \eta^2 f'(u)$  in (4.4.1) where  $\gamma$  is defined as in Lemma 4.4.3. Then  $f'' \geq (f')^2$ 

since h is convex, so we obtain

$$0 = \int_{\mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{b}}} \left[ 2 \eta \eta_{,\alpha} \, \mathbf{a}^{\alpha \beta} \mathbf{v}_{,\beta} + \eta^{2} \mathbf{f}^{"}(\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{a}^{\alpha \beta} \, \mathbf{u}_{,\alpha} \mathbf{u}_{,\beta} \right] d\mathbf{x}$$

$$\geq \int_{\mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{b}}} \left[ 2 \eta \eta_{,\alpha} \, \mathbf{a}^{\alpha \beta} \mathbf{v}_{,\beta} + \eta^{2} \mathbf{a}^{\alpha \beta} \, \mathbf{v}_{,\alpha} \, \mathbf{v}_{,\beta} \right] d\mathbf{x}$$

from which the result follows from the Schwarz inequality and the definition of

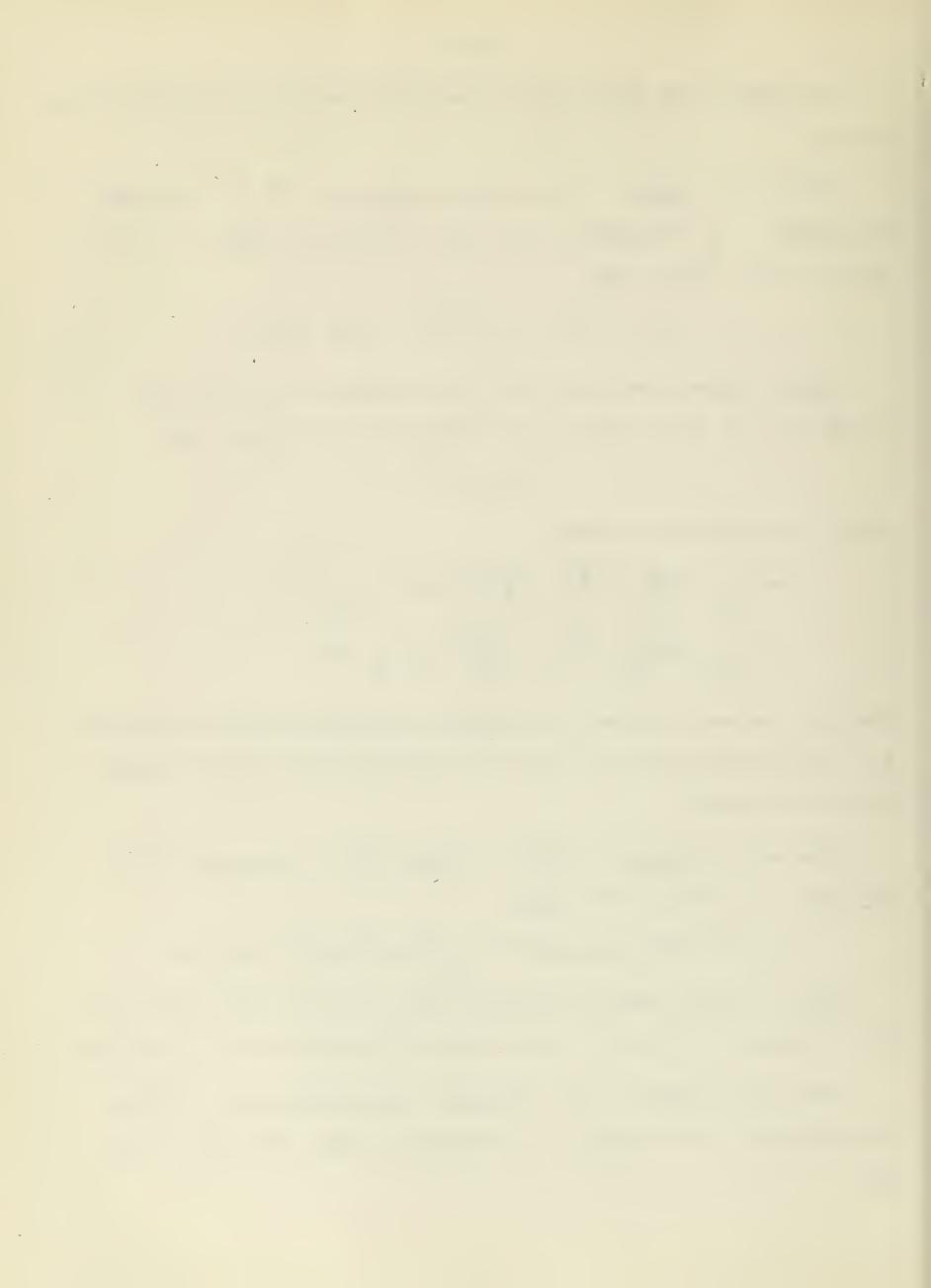
. By approximations (to h) as in the proof of Lemma 4.4.3, we conclude
the result as stated.

LEMMA 4.4.5: Suppose  $u \in H_2^1(B_R)$  and that u(x) = 0 on a set  $S \subset B_R$  such that  $|S| \ge C|B_R|$ , c > 0. Then

$$\int_{B_{R}} |\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})|^{2} d\mathbf{x} \leq C(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{R}^{2} \cdot \int_{B_{R}} |\nabla \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})|^{2} d\mathbf{x} \left(B_{R} = B(\mathbf{x}_{0}, \mathbf{R})\right).$$

<u>Proof:</u> An obvious change of variables shows that we may assume that  $B_R$  is the unit sphere  $B_1$  = B(0, 1). The remainder of the proof is left to the reader.

LEMMA 4.4.6: Suppose u is a-harmonic, non-negative, and u  $\epsilon$   $L_2^{(B)}$  and suppose that  $|S| > C_1^{(B)}$ , S being the set where  $u(x) \ge 1$ ,  $x \epsilon$   $B_{2R}$ . Then



$$u(x) \ge C(1), c_1, M_2/m_2, x \in B_{R/2}, 0 < C < 1.$$

Proof: Define v(x) = f[u(x)], where f is defined by

$$f(u) = max\{-log(u + \varepsilon), 0\}$$
,  $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ 

Then f satisfies the hypotheses of both Theorem 4.4.1 and Lemma 4.4.4. Since  $v(x) = 0 \text{ on a set } S_{\epsilon} \text{ with } |S_{\epsilon}| \geq C_1 |B_{kR}|/2 \text{ , for some } k \text{ with } 1 \leq k(c_1, \mathcal{V})$  < 2 , it follows that

$$\int_{B_{R}} v^{2}(x) dx \leq \int_{B_{R}} v^{2}(x) dx \leq CR^{2} \int_{B_{R}} |\nabla v(x)|^{2} dx \leq C_{1} |B_{R}|.$$

Accordingly, by Theorem 4.4.1, we conclude for each & that

$$|v(x)| \le C$$
 so  $u(x) \ge e^{-C}$  for  $x \in B_{R/2}$ .

THEOREM 4.4.2: Suppose that u is a harmonic on G and that u & H<sub>2</sub>(G).

Then u satisfies a uniform Hölder condition on any compact subset of G.

More specifically,

(4.4.6) 
$$d(u, B_r) \le C_1 \cdot d(u, B_\delta) \cdot (r/\delta)$$
,  $B_r = B(x_0, r)$ .  $G, 0 \le r \le \delta$ .

$$|u(x) - u(x_0)| \le C_2 \cdot d(u, B_8) \delta |x - x_0|^{\mu_0} \text{ if } |x - x_0| \le \delta/2$$

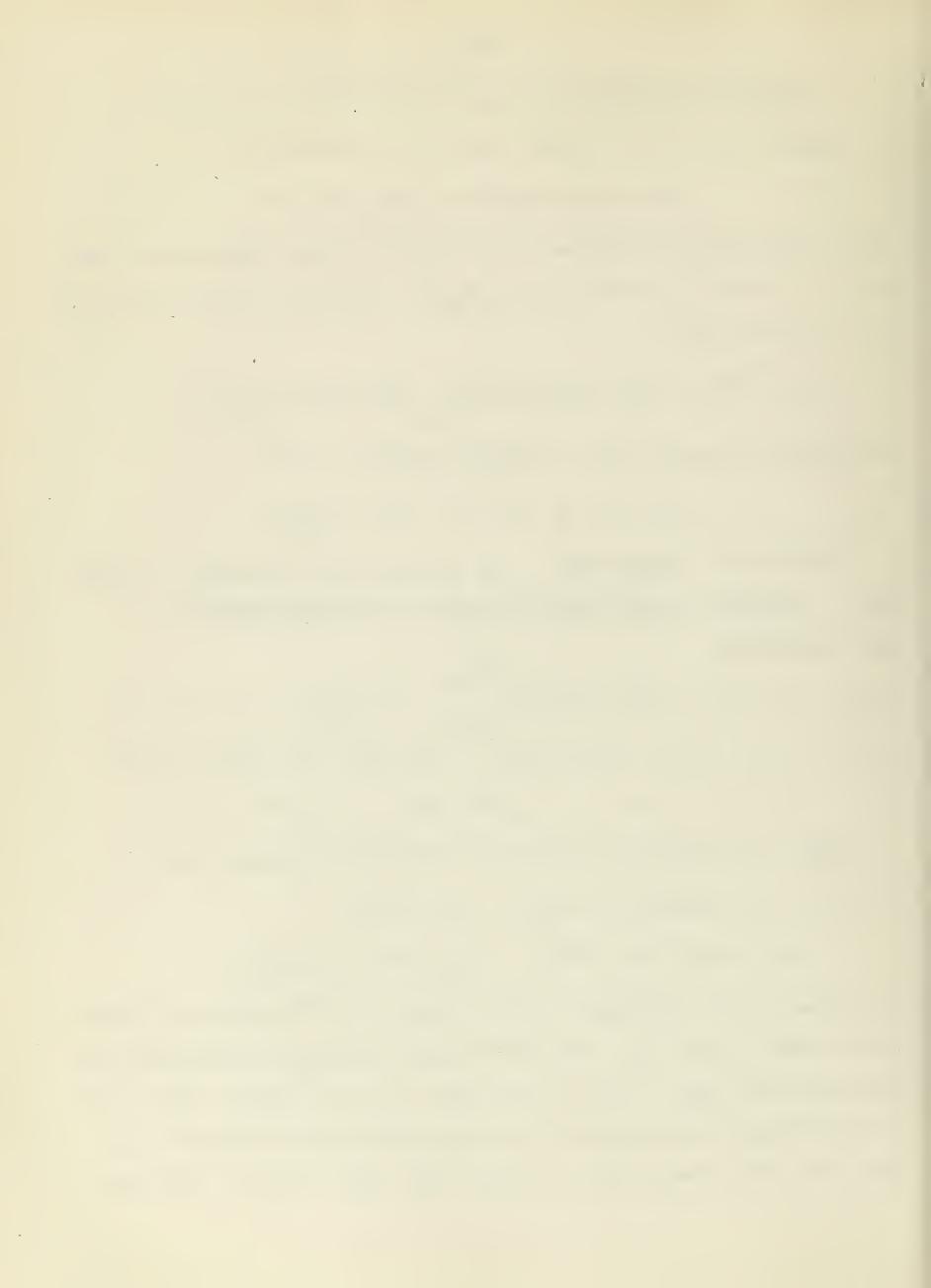
$$C_k = C_k(J, M_2(m_2), \mu_0 = \mu_0(J, M_2/m_2), 0 < \mu_0 < 1, \tau = V/2$$
.

Proof: We shall prove (4.4.6); (4.4.7) follows from Theorem 2.5.2.

If u is a-harmonic on  $B(x_0, \delta)$  and we define

$$u(y) = u(x_0 + \delta y)$$
,  $a^{\alpha\beta}(y) = a^{\alpha}(x_0 + \delta y)$ ,  $y \in B(0, 1)$ ,

we see that 'u is a-harmonic on B(0, 1) with the 'a satisfying (4.4.2) with the same  $m_2$  and  $M_2$ . From this fact and homogeneity considerations, we may assume that  $B(\mathbf{x}_0, \delta) = B(0, 1)$  and  $d(\mathbf{u}, B_1) = 1$ . Finally, since  $\mathbf{u} - \overline{\mathbf{u}}$  is a-harmonic, for any constant  $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ , we may assume that the average of  $\mathbf{u}$  is zero. Then, from Theorem 2.7.3, it follows that  $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2^0 \leq C_3(\mathcal{V})$ . Hence from



Theorem 4.4.1, we conclude that

$$|u(x)| \le C_{\downarrow}$$
 for  $x \in B_{\downarrow b}$ ,  $b = 1/8$ ,  $C_{\downarrow} = C_{\downarrow}(\gamma)$ ,  $M_2/m_2$ )

Now, suppose  $0 < r \le b$  and suppose that m and M respectively, the essential inf and the essential sup of u(x) on  $B_{l_1r}$ . Choose  $u_l$  so that  $|S^+| \le |B_{l_1r}|/2$  where  $S^+$  and  $S^-$  are, respectively, the sets where  $u(x) > u_l$  and  $u(x) < u_l$ . Then, if we replace the u of Lemma 4.4.6 by  $(u - m)/(u_l - m)$  and  $(M - u)/(M - u_l)$  in turn, we conclude that

(4.4.9) 
$$u(x) - m \ge C_5(u_1 - m)$$
 and  $M - u(x) \ge C_5(M - u_1)$  for  $x \in B_r$ 

$$C_5 = C_5(\mathcal{V}, M_2/m_2), 0 < C_5 < 1.$$

Thus, if we define  $\psi(r)$  as the essential oscillation (sup.--inf.) of u on B, we conclude that

$$(4.4.10)$$
  $\psi(r) \le h\psi(4r)$ ,  $h = 1 - C_5$ , if  $r \le b$ 

Accordingly, using (4.4.8) and (4.4.10), we obtain

$$\psi(r) \le 2h^n C_{4}$$
 if  $4^{-n}b \le r < 4^{1-n} b$ ,  $n \ge 1$ .

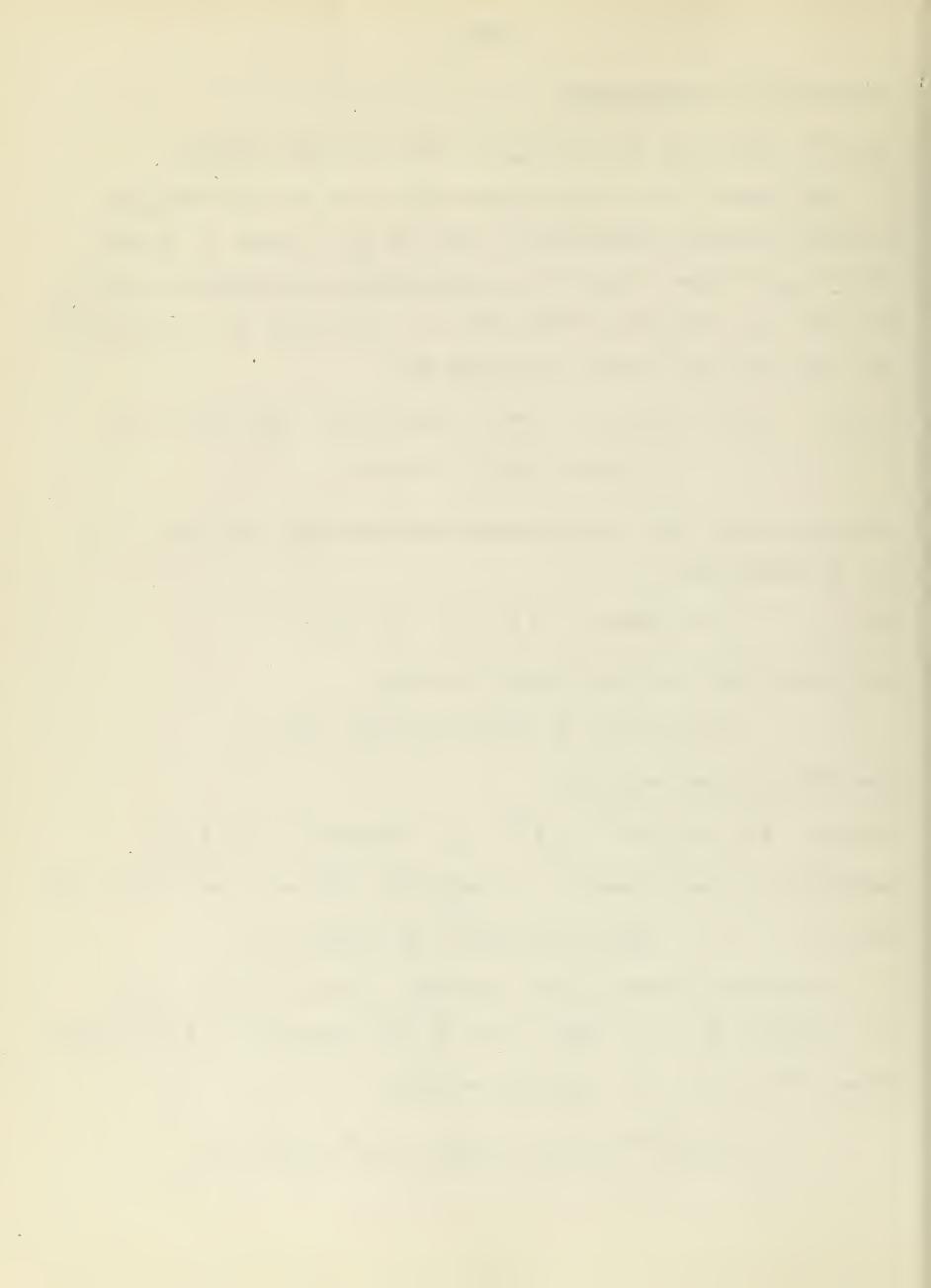
From this, it follows easily that

$$(4.4.11)$$
  $\psi(r) \le 2C_4(r/b)^{\mu_0} \le C_6 r^{\mu_0}$ ,  $\mu_0 = -\log h/\log 4$ ,  $0 \le r \le b$ .

Accordingly, if a set of measure 0 is neglected,  $u(x) \longrightarrow u_0$  as  $x \longrightarrow 0$ , and  $(u_0u_0) = u_0 = u_0$  if  $0 \le |x| \le b$ .

Now, suppose we choose  $r \le b/2$  and define  $\gamma(x) = 1$  on  $B_r$ ,  $\gamma(x) = 2 - |x|/r$  on  $B_{2r} - B_r$ ,  $\gamma(x) = 0$  on  $B_1 - B_{2r}$ , and set  $\zeta = \gamma^2 \cdot (u - u_0)$  in (4.4.1) ( $b^{\alpha} = \dots = f = 0$ ). From this we obtain

$$\int_{B_{2r}} [\eta^{2} a^{\alpha \beta} u_{,\alpha} u_{,\beta} + 2 \eta \eta_{,\alpha} (u - u_{0}) a^{\alpha \beta} u_{,\beta}] dx = 0$$



from which it follows in the usual way that

$$(\mu_{\bullet}\mu_{\bullet}13)$$
  $\int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla u|^2 dx \le c_7 r^{-2} \int_{B_{2\mathbf{r}}} (u - u_0)^2 dx \le c_8 r^{3/2 - 2 + 2\mu_0}$ 

using (4.4.12). Since  $d(u, B_1) = 1$ , (4.4.13) holds for  $0 \le r \le 1$ . But this is equivalent to (4.4.6)

Next, we consider (4.4.1) when the coefficients  $b^{\alpha}$ ,  $c^{\alpha}$ , and  $d \equiv 0$  but  $e^{\alpha}$  and f are not. We handle the term in f by means of a potential using the following theorem.

THEOREM 4.4.3: Suppose 
$$f \in L_2(\mathbb{R}_R)$$
 and 
$$(4.4.14) \qquad \int_{\mathbb{R}_R} f^2 dx \leq L^2(r/\mathbb{R})^{3/2-2+2\mu}, \quad 0 < \mu < 1.$$

Suppose V is the potential of f . Then

(4.4.15) 
$$\int_{B_r} |\nabla v|^2 dx \le c^2 L^2 R^2 (r/R)^{-1/2+2\mu}, c = c(1), \mu$$

Moreover, if  $v \in H_{20}^{1}(B_{R})$ , then

$$(4.4.16) \qquad \int_{B_R} v f dx = -\int_{B_R} v_{,\alpha} v_{,\alpha} dx$$

<u>Proof:</u> The last statement follows by approximating to v and f by smooth functions. Moreover (4.4.15) holds for  $(R/2) \le r \le R$ , obviously, on account of Theorem 2.6.2. So we assume  $r \le R/2$  and hold it fixed. We define  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  by

 $f(\xi) = f_1(\xi) + f_2(\xi) , f_1(\xi) = f(\xi) \text{ for } \xi \in \mathbb{B}_{2\mathbf{r}}, f_1(\xi) = 0 \text{ otherwise};$  and let  $V_k$  be the potential of  $f_k$ , k = 1, 2. As in the proof of Theorem 2.6.2, we find that

$$(4.4.17) ||V_{k}(x)| \leq W_{k}(x), ||W_{k}(x)| = ||V_{k}(x)|| + ||$$

$$W_2(x) = \int_{B_{R}-B_{2r}}^{-1} |\xi - x|^{1-\sqrt{|\xi|}} |d\xi|$$

Then, for almost all x, we obtain  $(4.4.18) \quad \mathbb{W}_{1}^{2}(\mathbf{x}) \leq \Gamma_{\mathbf{v}}^{-2} \int_{\mathbf{B}_{2r}} |\xi - \mathbf{x}|^{1-\mathbf{v}} d\xi \cdot \int_{\mathbf{B}_{2r}} |\xi - \mathbf{x}|^{1-\mathbf{v}} f^{2}(\xi) d\xi \leq (2r) \cdot \Gamma_{\mathbf{v}}^{-1} \int_{\mathbf{B}_{2r}} |\xi - \mathbf{x}|^{1-\mathbf{v}} f^{2}(\xi) d\xi$ 



since, for any set S of finite measure, it is obvious that

Integrating (4.4.18) and using (4.4.19), we obtain

$$(4.4.20) \int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} W_1^2(x) dx = 2r^2 \int_{B2r} f^2(\xi) d\xi \leq 2r^2 L^2(2r/R)^{\sqrt{-2+2\mu}}$$

Now, clearly

(4.4.21) 
$$\frac{1}{2}(\xi) \le |\xi - x| \le \frac{3}{2}|\xi|$$
 if  $x \in B_r$ ,  $\xi \in B_R - B_{2r}$ .

Let us define

$$\psi(r) = \int_{B_r} |f(\xi)| d\xi$$

Then, by the Schwarz inequality

(4.4.23) 
$$\psi(r) \leq \gamma^{\mu 1/2} L R^{1-\nu} - \mu r^{\nu} - l + \mu , \quad 0 \leq r \leq R$$

Then, using (4.4.17), (4.4.21) - (4.4.23), we obtain

$$W_{2}(x) \leq C_{1} \int_{2\mathbf{r}}^{R} \rho^{1-\gamma} \psi'(\rho) d\rho \leq C_{2} L[R^{1-\gamma} \psi(R) + (\gamma) - 1) \int_{2\mathbf{r}}^{R} \rho^{-\gamma} \psi(\rho) d\rho] \leq C_{3} LR^{1-\gamma}$$

Hence

$$(4.4.24)$$
  $\int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} W_2^2(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \le C_4^2 L^2 R^{2-\nu} r^{\nu} \le C_4^2 L^2 R^2 (r/R)^{\nu-2+2\mu}$ 

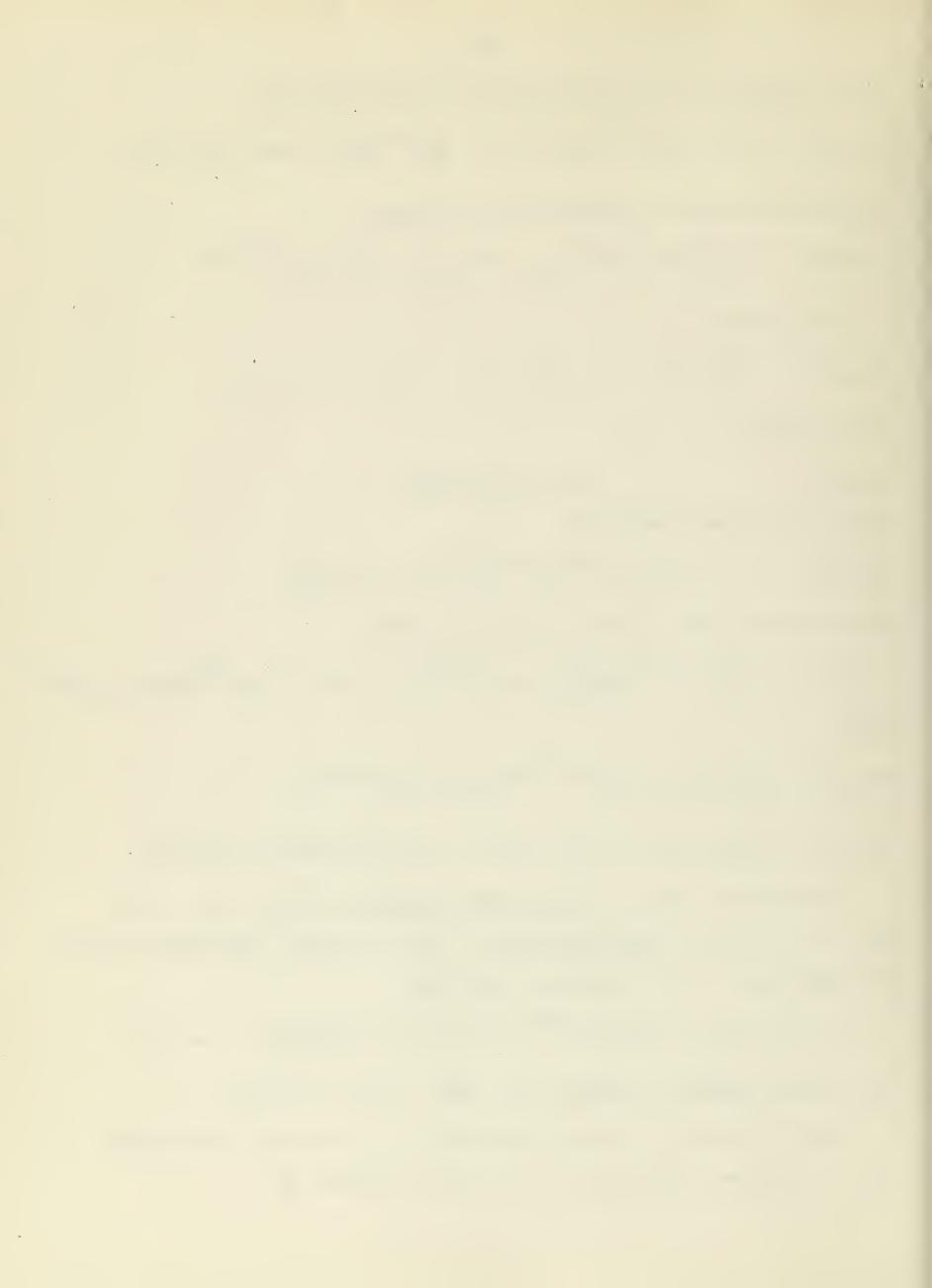
The result follows from (4.4.20), (4.4.24), and the Minkowski inequality.

THEOREM 4.4.4: Let u be the unique solution in  $H_{20}^1(B_R)$  of (4.4.1) with  $b^{\alpha} = c^{\alpha} = d = 0$  and suppose that e and f s  $L_2(B_R)$  and satisfy (4.4.14). Then there is a  $C = C(\mathcal{N}, M_2/m_2, \mu)$  such that

$$d(u, B_r) \le C(L_e + C_1RL_f)(r/R)^{1/2-1+\mu}, 0 \le r \le R, \text{ provided } 0 < \mu < \mu_0.$$

$$C_1$$
 being the constant of Theorem 4.4.3 and  $d(u, B_r) = \|\nabla u\|_{2,r}^0$ .

<u>Proof:</u> If we let V be the potential of f, we see from Theorem 4.4.3 that u satisfies (4.4.1) with f = 0 and  $e^{\alpha}$  replaced by



$$E^{\alpha} = e^{\alpha} - V_{,\alpha}, [\int_{B_{r}} |E|^{2} dx]^{1/2} \le (L_{e} + C_{1}RL_{f})(r/R)^{\tau-1+\mu}.$$

So it is sufficient to prove the theorem with  $f \equiv 0$  and set  $L_e = L$ .

To do this, we define

$$\mathcal{P}(s) = \sup_{s \to \infty} L^{-1}d(u, B_{bs})$$

for all e satisfying (4.4.14) with R replaced by b, u being the corresponding solution of (4.4.1) in  $H_{20}^1(B_b)$ . Then, choose any e satisfying (4.4.14), choose r and  $\rho$  with  $0 < r < \rho \le R$ , and write u = U + H on  $B_\rho$  where H is the a-harmonic function = u on  $\partial B_\rho$ . Then, since H is aharmonic and U = 0 om  $\partial B_\rho$ ,

$$I(u, B_{\rho}) = I(U, B_{\rho}) + I(H, B_{\rho}), I(v, B_{\rho}) = \int_{B_{\rho}} a^{\alpha\beta} v_{,\alpha} v_{,\beta} dx,$$

$$d(H, B_{\rho}) \leq C_{2} (M_{2}/m_{2}) \cdot d(u, B_{\rho}) \leq C_{2} L \varphi(\rho/R)$$

from the definition of  $\phi$ . Then, if we apply Theorem 4.4.3 and the definition of  $\phi$ , we obtain

$$\begin{array}{c} d(u, B_{r}) \leq d(U, B_{r}) + d(H, B_{r}) \leq L(\rho/R)^{\tau-1+\mu} \psi(r/\rho) \\ + c_{2}L \phi(\rho/R) \cdot (r/\rho)^{\tau-1+\mu_{0}} \end{array}.$$

since e clearly satisfies (4.4.14) on B with R replaced by  $\rho$  and L by  $L(\rho/R)^{\tau-1+\mu}$ . Since (4.4.25) holds for all e, etc., we obtain

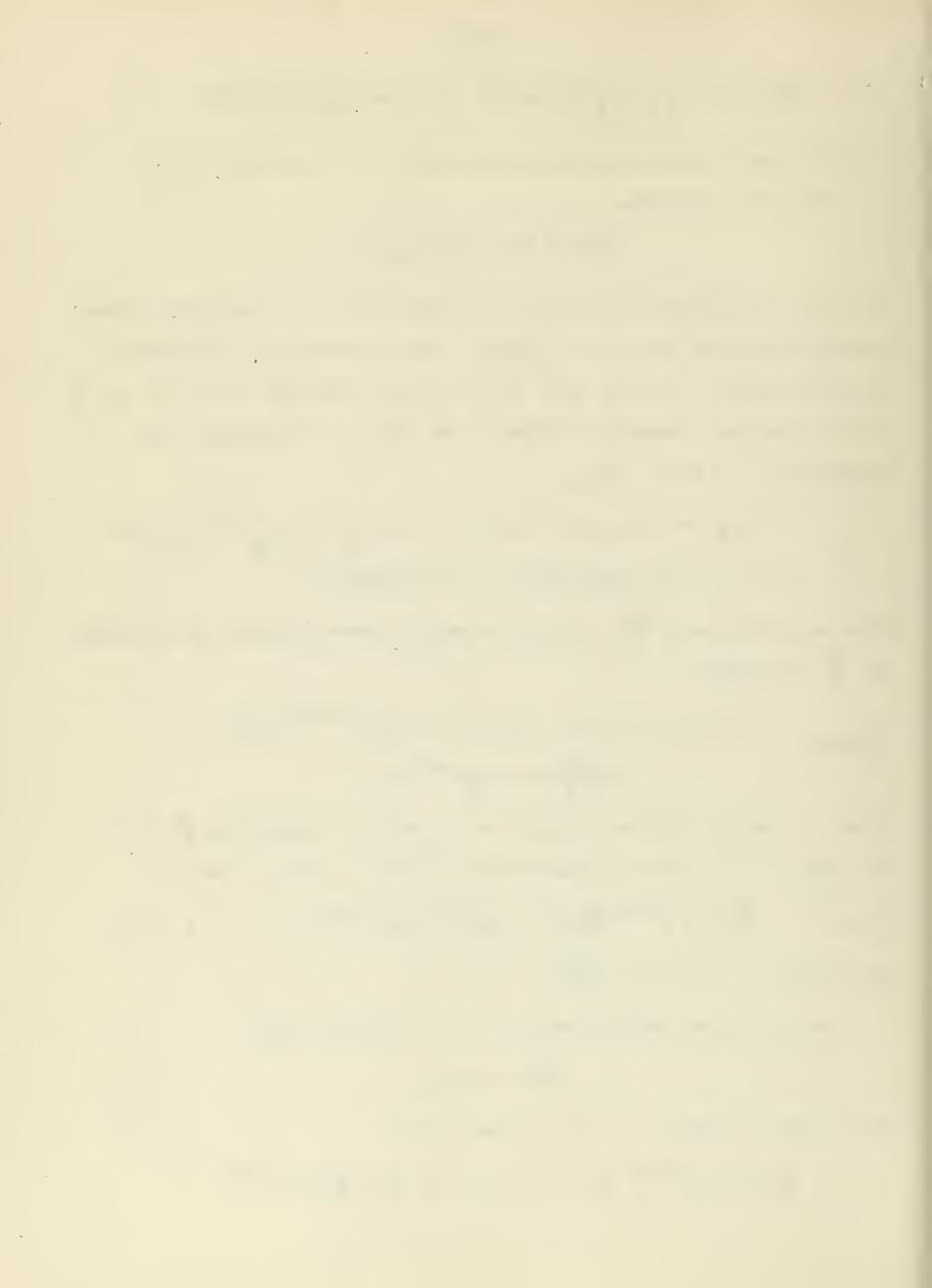
$$(4.4.26) \qquad \varphi(s) \leq t^{\tau-1+\mu} \varphi(x/t) + C_2 \varphi(t) \cdot (s/t)^{\tau-1+\mu_0}, \quad 0 < s < t \leq 1,$$

where we set s = r/R,  $t = \rho/R$ .

Now, it follows easily by setting v = u in (4.4.1) that

Next, choose  $\sigma$  with  $0 < \sigma < 1$ . Then, clearly

$$\varphi(s) \leq S_0 s^{\tau-1+\mu}$$
 for  $\sigma \leq s \leq 1$  if  $S_0 = \varphi(1) \cdot \sigma^{1-\tau-\mu}$ 



Applying (4.4.26) with  $\sigma^2 \le s \le \sigma$  and  $t = \sigma^{-1}s$ , we obtain (4.4.27)  $\Phi(s) \le S_1 s^{\sigma-1+\mu}$  for  $\sigma^2 \le s \le 1$ ,  $S_1 = S_0(1 + C_2\omega)$ ,  $\omega = \sigma^{0-\mu}$  since  $S_1 \ge S_0$ . Applying (4.4.26) with  $\sigma^4 \le s \le \sigma^2$ ,  $t = \sigma^{-2}s$ , we obtain  $\Phi(s) \le S_2 s^{\tau-1+\mu}$ ,  $\sigma^4 \le s \le 1$ ,  $S_2 = S_0(1 + C_2\omega)(1 + C_2\omega^2)$ 

By repeating the process, we find that

$$\varphi(s) \leq Ss^{\tau-1+\mu}$$
,  $S = S_0(1 + C_2\omega)(1 + C_2\omega^2)(1 + C_2\omega^4)...$ ,  $0 < s \leq 1$ .

We now indicate how to show that the solutions in  $H_2^1(D)$  of the general equations (4.4.1) are Hölder continuous on domains  $\Delta \subset \subset D$ . We choose  $B_R = B(x_0, R) \subset D$  and write  $u = u_R + H_R$  on  $B_R$ , where  $H_R$  is the a-harmonic function = u on  $\partial B_R$  so that

$$u_R - T_R u_R = w_R$$
 on  $B_R$ 

where  $T_R u_R = U_R$  and  $U_R$  and  $w_R$  are the solutions in  $H_{20}^1(B_R)$  of  $\int_{B_R} [\zeta, \alpha(a^{\alpha\beta}U_{R,\beta} + b^{\alpha}u_R) + \zeta(c^{\alpha}u_{R,\alpha} + du_R)] dx = 0$   $\int_{B_R} [\zeta, \alpha(a^{\alpha\beta}w_{R,\beta} + b^{\alpha}H_R + e^{\alpha}) + \zeta(c^{\alpha}H_R, \alpha + dH_R + f)] dx = 0 ,$ 

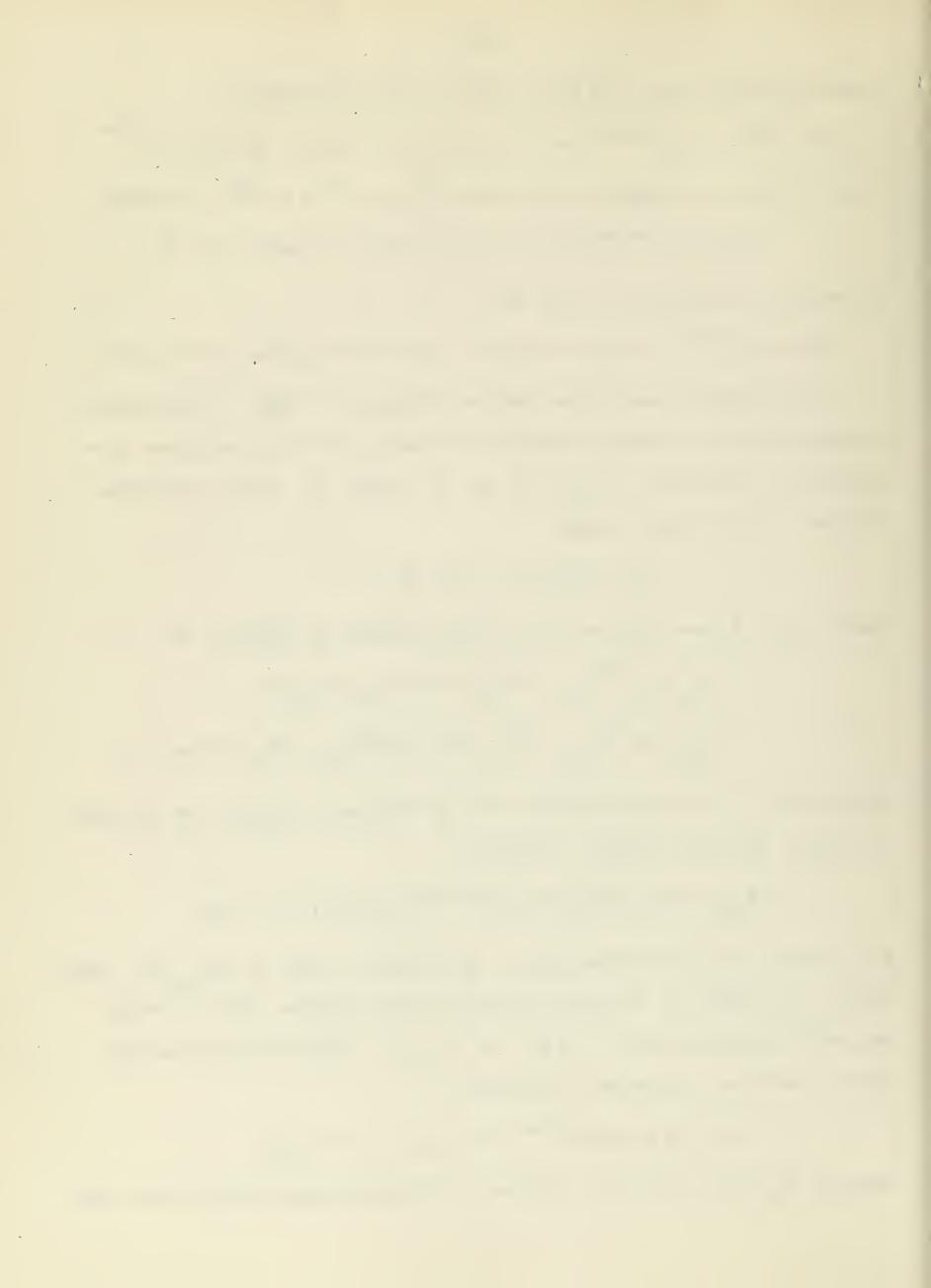
respectively. It is then possible to set up the spaces  $H_{2,\mu}^1(B_R)$  of functions  $u \in H_2^1(B_R)$  with norm  $\|u\|_{2,\mu}^1$  defined by

$$\|u\|_{2,\mu}^{1} = \max [\|u\|_{2}^{1}, \sup (r/R)^{1-\tau-\mu}d(u, B_{r})], 0 < \mu < \mu_{0}$$

From Theorem 4.4.2, it follows that if  $H_R \in H_2^1(B_R)$ , then  $H_R \in H_2^1(B_R)$  with  $\|H\|_{2,\mu_0}^1 \leq C_1 \cdot \|H\|_2^1$ ,  $C_1$  being the constant of that theorem. Then the reader can prove that the norm of  $T_R \leq 1/2$  if  $R \leq R_2$ . Then it follows that any solution of (4.4.1) satisfies a condition

$$d(u, B_r) \le L(r/R)^{\tau-1+\mu}$$
,  $0 \le r \le R$ ,  $0 < R \le R_2$ 

whenever  $B_R = B(x_0, R) \subset D$ . From that, it follows, using Theorem 2.5.2, that



u is Hölder continuous on compact subsets of D .

Thus, it follows that the  $p_{\gamma}$  are Holder continuous on compact subsets of G. Hence it follows that the coefficients  $f_{p_{\alpha}p_{\beta}}$ , etc., in (4.3.9) are Hölder continuous, so that the  $p_{\gamma}$  satisfy equation (4.4.1) in which the coefficients are Hölder continuous. Then, from the results of § 3.6, it follows that the  $p_{\gamma} \in C^{1+\mu}(D)$  for each  $D \subset C$ ; in other words, the function  $z \in C^{2+\mu}(D)$  for such D and is easily seen to satisfy Euler's equation which, when written out has the form

$$A^{\alpha\beta}(x,z,\sqrt{z})z,_{\alpha\beta} = D(x,z,\sqrt{z})$$

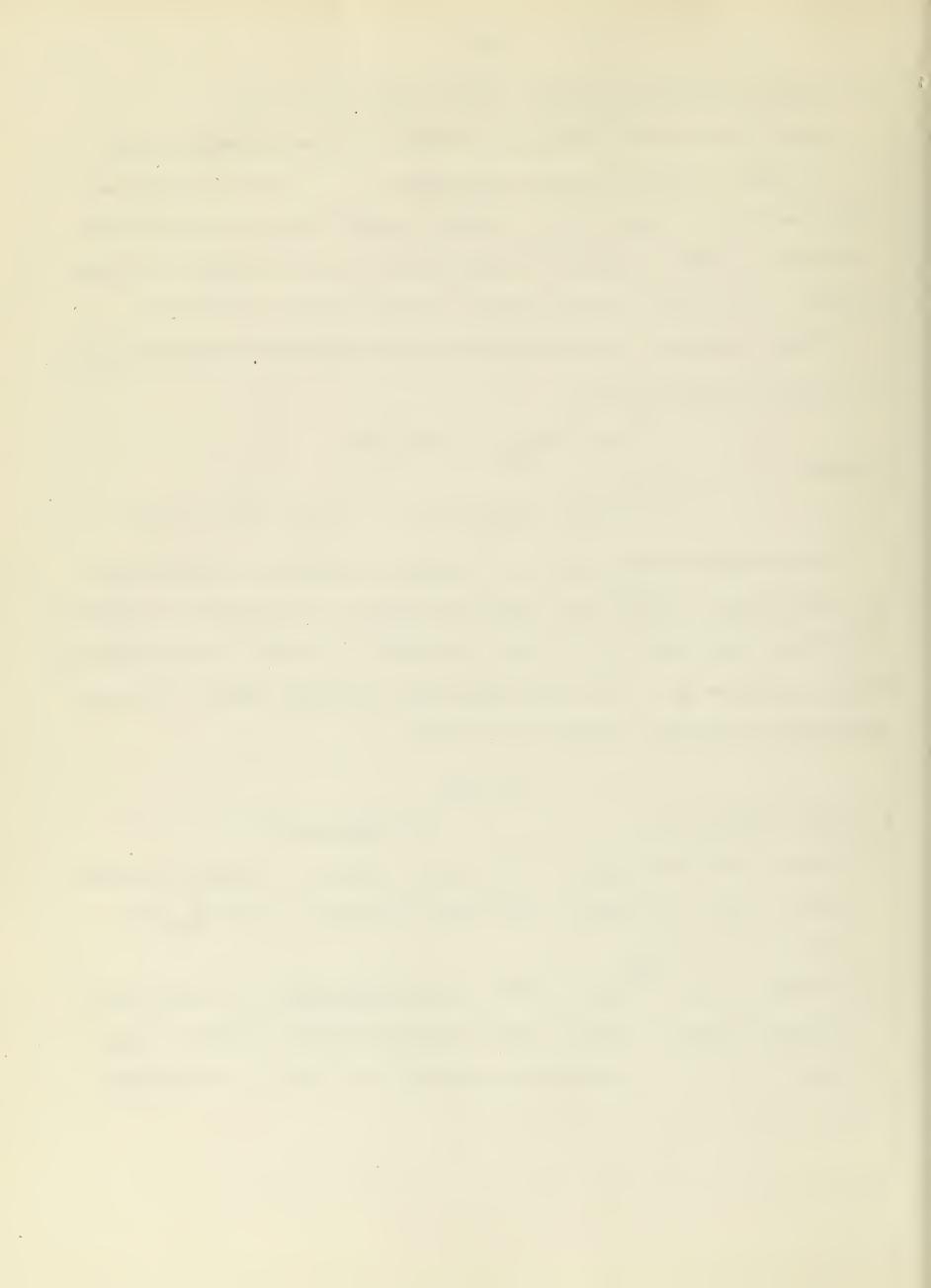
$$(4.4.28)$$

$$A^{\alpha\beta}(x,z,p) = f_{p_{\alpha}p_{\beta}}(x,z,p), \quad D = f_{z} - p_{\alpha}f_{zp_{\alpha}} - f_{p_{\alpha}x}a.$$

In case higher derivatives of f are Hölder continuous on bounded parts of (x,z,p)-space, the difference quotient procedure can be applied to equations (1.4.28) and the results of f 3.4 used repeatedly to show that the corresponding higher derivatives of f are Hölder-continuous on interior domains. We leave the carrying out of this program to the reader.

## EXERCISES

- 1. Prove Theorem 4.4.1. 2. Prove Lemma 4.4.5.
- 3. Show that there is an  $R_2 > 0$  which depends only on  $\mathcal{V}$ ,  $M_2/m_2$ ,  $\mu$ , and the bounds of the b°, c°, and d such that the norm of  $T_R$  in  $H_2^1$ ,  $\mu(B_R)$   $\leq 1/2$  if  $0 < R \leq R_2$ .
- 4. Show that if the  $A^{\alpha\beta}$  and  $D \in C^{1+\mu}$  on any bounded part of (x,z,p) space, then any function  $z \in H^1_{2k}(G)$  which satisfies  $(4.3.4) \in C^{3+\mu}(D)$  on each domain  $D \subset G$ ; f is supposed to satisfy one of the sets of conditions in § 4.3.



## ELLIPTIC EQUATIONS OF HIGHER ORDER

5.1. Elliptic and strongly elliptic equations. In this chapter, we shall consider equations of the form

(5.1.1) Lu + 
$$\lambda u = f$$
, Lu =  $\sum_{\alpha \leq m} a_{\alpha}(x) D^{\alpha} u$ 

where

(5.1.2) 
$$D^{\alpha} = D_{1}^{\alpha} \dots D_{\nu}^{\alpha}, \text{ and } D_{\beta} = i^{-1} \partial/\partial x^{\beta}.$$

We shall allow the coefficients and functions to be complex valued.

DEFINITION: For each x, the operator L is a polynomial in D . We define the characteristic polynomial

(5.1.3) 
$$L'(x,\xi) = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} a_{\alpha}(x) \xi^{\alpha}, \xi^{\alpha} = (\xi^{1})^{\alpha_{1}} ... (\xi^{2})^{\alpha} \vee$$

and will define the principal part of the operator L by

(5.1.4) 
$$L'(x, D) = \sum_{\alpha = m} a_{\alpha}(x)D^{\alpha}.$$

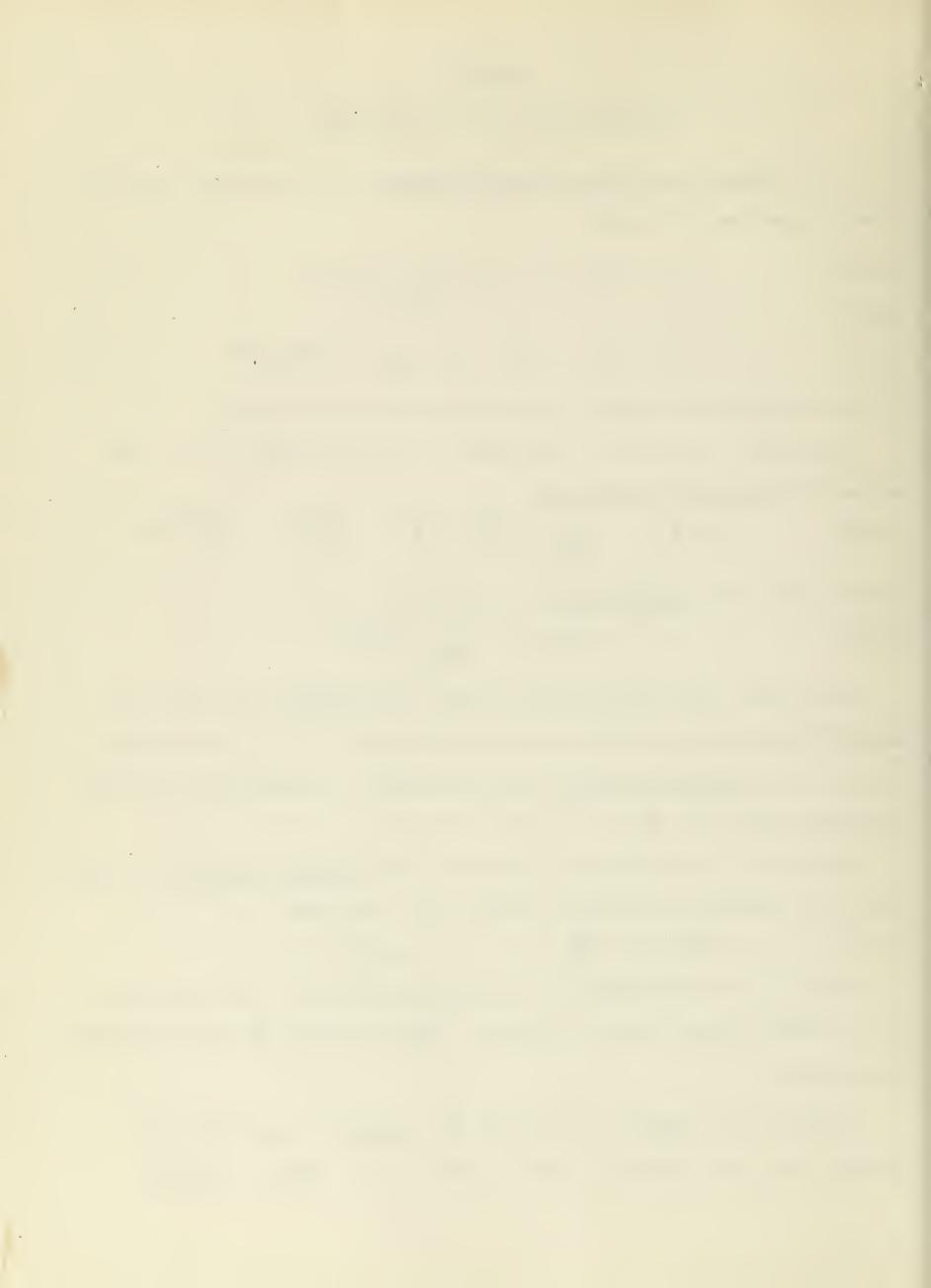
DEFINITION: The equation (5.1.1) is said to be elliptic in a domain D iff the characteristic polynomial is never zero for any x in D and any real  $\xi \neq 0$ ; it is uniformly elliptic iff that polynomial is bounded above and below in absolute value for  $|\xi| = 1$  and x in D.

DEWINITION: The equation (5.1.1) is said to be strongly elliptic in D iff there is a couplex-valued non-zero function p(x) such that

(5.1.5) 
$$\Re [p(x)L'(x,\xi)] > 0 \text{ for real } \xi \neq 0.$$

REMARK: If the coefficients of the principal part of L are real, then
L is strongly elliptic iff it is elliptic. This is not true if the coefficients
are complex.

THEOREM 5.1.1: Suppose D is a set, the operator L in (5.1.1) is elliptic (i.e., the equation is) on D, and  $\mathcal{D} > 2$ . Then m is even.



Moreover, if  $x_0 \in D$  and  $\xi_0$  are linearly independent, the polynomial  $L(x_0, \xi_0 + z \xi_0)$  in z has the same number of roots having positive imaginary parts as those having negative imaginary parts.

<u>Proof:</u> We notice first that if  $z_0$  is a root of  $L(x_0, \xi_0 + z \xi_0)$ , then  $-z_0$  is one of  $L(x_0, \xi_0 - z \xi_0)$ . Since L'>2, there is a real continuous vector function  $\xi$  (t) on [0, 1] such that  $\xi$  (0) =  $\xi_0$  and  $\xi$  (1) =  $-\xi_0$  and  $\xi$  (1) =  $-\xi_0$  and  $\xi$  (1) and  $\xi$  are always linearly independent. The results follow since the roots of  $L[x_0, \xi_0 + z \xi(t)]$  vary continuously with t and no root is real for  $0 \le t \le 1$ .

REMARK: That this is not true for y = 2 is seen by considering the operator

$$2\frac{3}{3} = \frac{3}{2} + i\frac{3}{3}$$
.

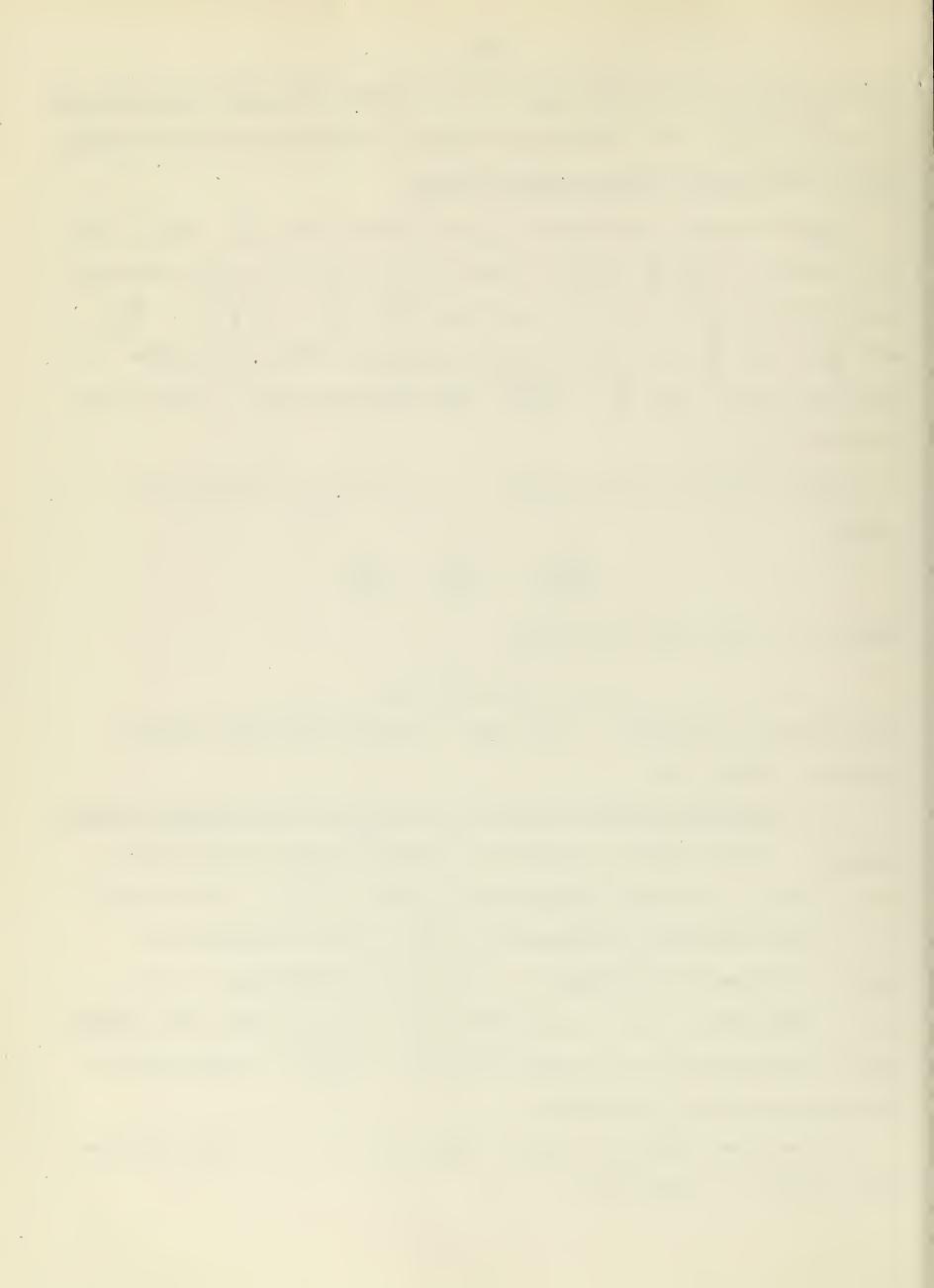
Moreover, it is seen that any function

$$w = (R^2 - z\overline{z}) f(z)$$

is a solution of  $\partial^2 w/\partial \overline{z}^2 = 0$  if f(z) is analytic; each such function vanishes on  $\partial B(0, R)$ !

5.2. The existence theory for the Dirichlet problem for a strongly elliptic equation. In this section, we discuss the existence theory for the equation (5.1.1) where L is strongly elliptic and of order 2m and u and its first m-1 normal derivatives are prescribed on  $\Im G$  if this is sufficiently smooth. We assume that the factor p in (5.1.5) is absorbed into L so (5.1.5) holds iwith  $p \equiv 1$ . By subtracting off a function having these boundary values, we may assume that our desired solution  $u = H_{20}^m(G)$ , in which case we need make no smoothness assumptions on G.

The developments parallel those of §§ 3.1-3.3. If u is such a solution and v  $\epsilon\,C_c^m(G)$ , it follows that



(5.2.1)  $\int_{G} \overline{v}(Lu + \lambda u)dx = \int_{G} \overline{v} f dx. \quad \text{If the coefficients}$   $a_{\alpha} \text{ with } |\alpha| > m \qquad \mathcal{E} C_{1}^{|\alpha|-m-1}(G), \text{ then each such term } \overline{v} a_{\alpha} D^{\alpha}u \text{ can be}$ integrated by parts  $|\alpha| - m$  times to reduce (5.2.1) to a special case of an equation of the form (3.1.4) where C(u, v) is given in (3.1.5) and where  $(5.2.2) \quad B(u, v) = \int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha|, |\beta| \leq m} A_{\alpha\beta}(x) \overline{D^{\alpha}v} D^{\alpha}u dx, L(v) = \int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} \overline{E_{\alpha}} \overline{D^{\alpha}v} dx$ 

Evidently the integrations by parts can be done in many ways giving rise to different forms B(u, v). However, we have the following lemma:

LEMMA 5.2.1: Suppose L is given by (5.1.1) with m replaced by 2m and equation (5.2.2) is obtained from (5.2.1) by integration by parts in any of the ways suggested above. Then  $\sum_{|\alpha|=2m} a_{\alpha}(x) \xi^{\alpha} = \sum_{|\alpha|=|\beta| \le m} A_{\alpha} \beta^{(x)} \xi^{\alpha} \xi^{\beta}.$ 

<u>Proof:</u> Suppose that the formula (5.2.2) for B(u, v) is obtained from the integral of  $\overline{v}$  Lu by integration by parts in a certain order. It is clear that, for any  $x_0$  in G, one would obtain the formula (5.2.4)  $\int_{G} \overline{v} L(x_0, D) u dx = \int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha|=|\alpha|=m}^{A} A_{\alpha} (x_0) \overline{D}^{\alpha} v D^{\beta} u dx$ 

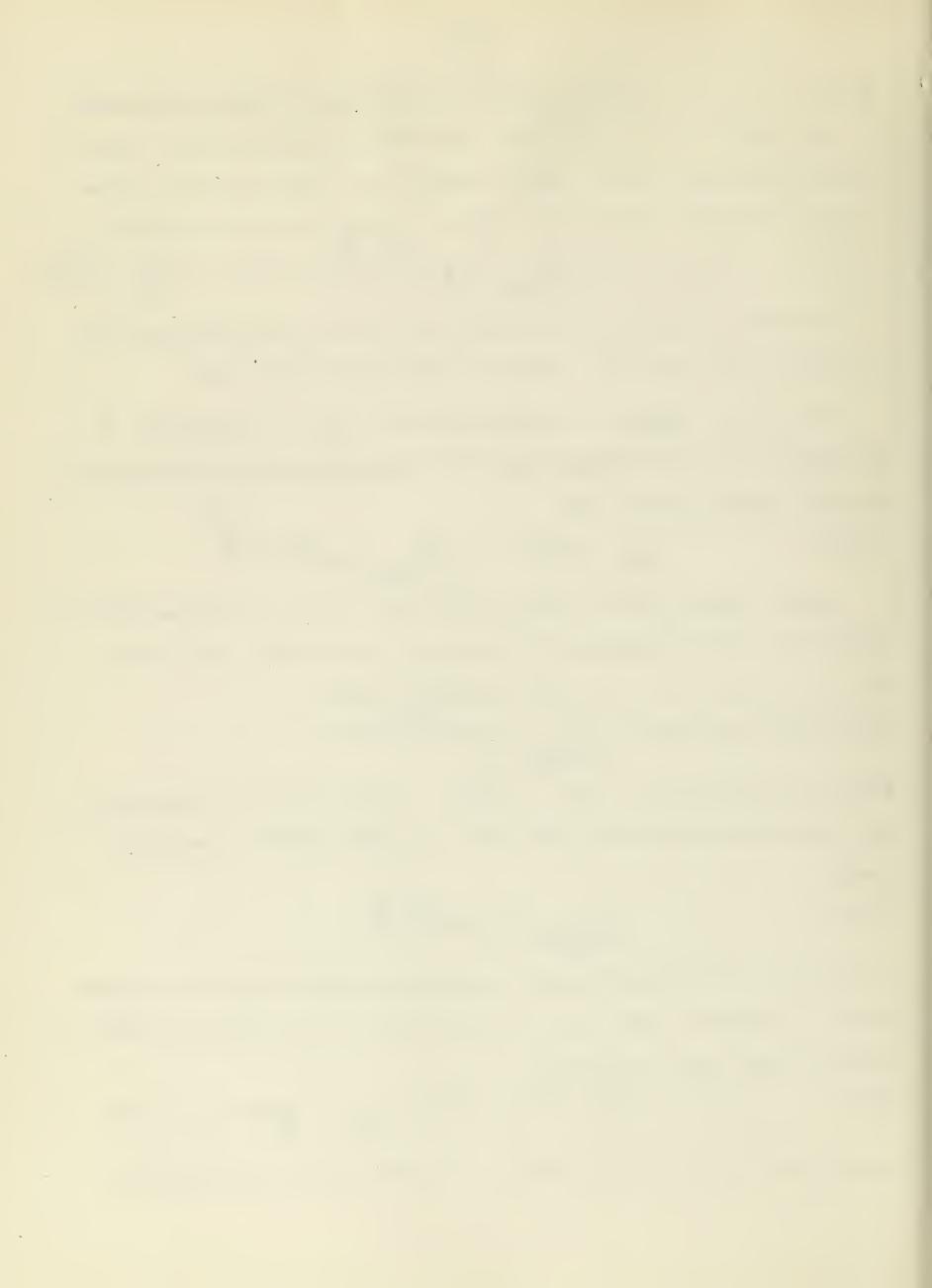
which would hold for any u and  $v \in C_c^{\infty}(G)$ . In the process of carrying out the integrations by parts in a given order, one would generate a sequence of forms

(5.2.5) 
$$|\alpha| + |\beta| = 2m \operatorname{A}_{\alpha\beta}^{r} (x_0) \overline{D}^{\alpha} v D^{\beta} u$$

in which each was obtained from the preceding by a single integration by parts. Suppose we consider a single term in (5.2.5) with  $|\alpha| < m$ ; we can write the integral of that term in the form

integral of that term in the form 
$$\beta_k = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_k} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h} = \frac{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_h}{\alpha_h} (x_0)^{\beta_1 \cdots \beta_h$$

in which each  $a_s$  and  $\beta_t$  is between 1 and v and the next integration



by parts is with respect to  $x^{f_1}$ . Carrying that out, we see that (5.2.6) equals (note the definition of  $D_c$ )

equals (note the definition of 
$$D_{\alpha}$$
)
$$\int_{G} A_{r}^{a_{1}\cdots a_{h}} 1^{\cdots b_{k}} (x_{0}) \frac{D_{\alpha_{1}\cdots D_{\alpha_{h}}} D_{\beta_{1}} v D_{\beta_{2}} u \cdots D_{\beta_{k}} u d x$$

It is clear from this that

$$\frac{1}{|\alpha|+|\varepsilon|=2m} A_{\alpha\beta}^{r}(x_{0}) \delta^{\alpha} \delta^{\beta} = \sum_{|\alpha|+|\varepsilon|=2m} A_{\alpha\beta}^{r+1}(x_{0}) \delta^{\alpha} \delta^{\beta}$$

from which the result follows.

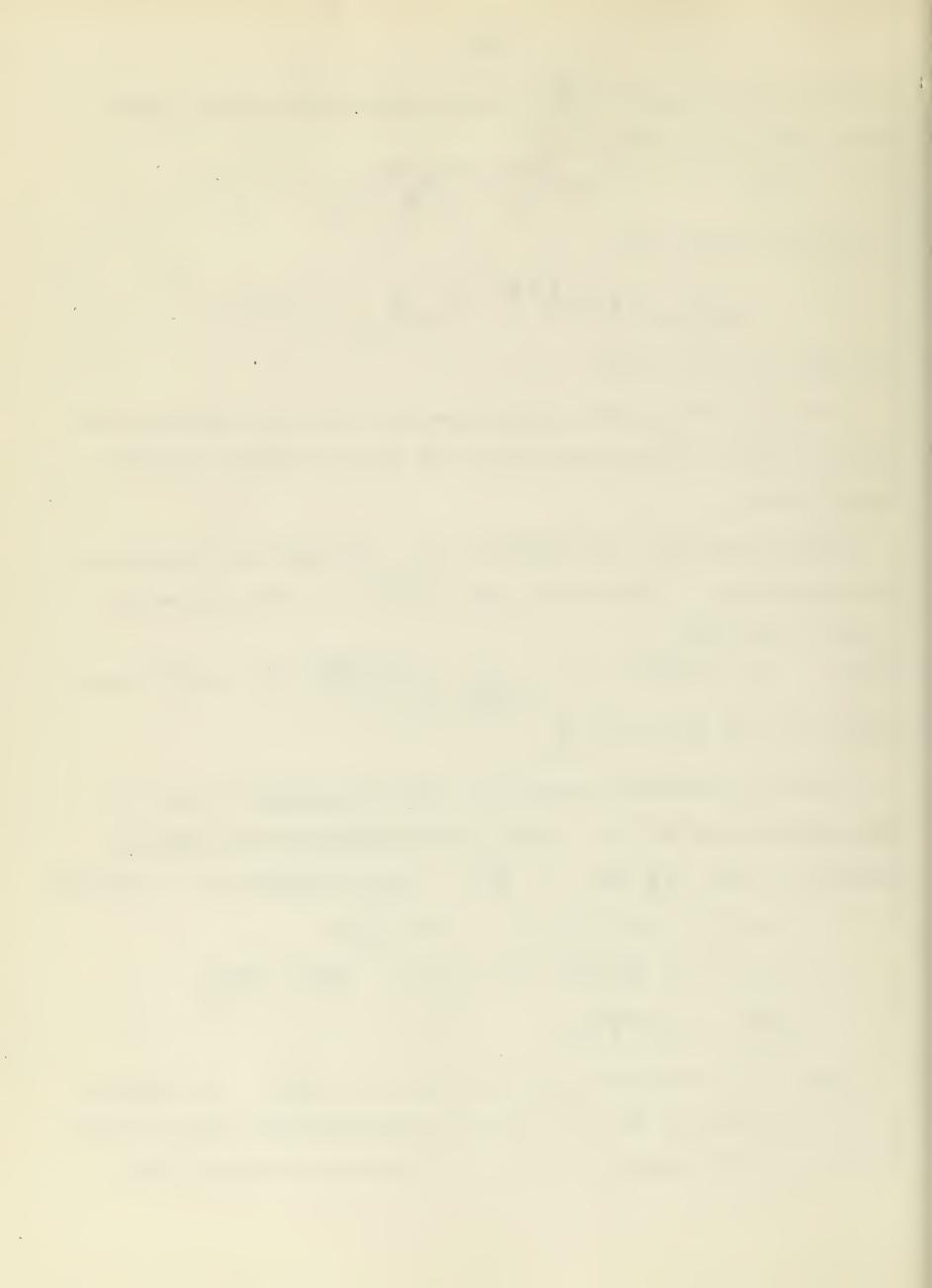
As in § 3.1, then we shall consider equations of the form (3.1.4) in which C(u, v) is given in (3.1.5) and B(u, v) and L(v) are defined in (5.2.2) where we assume:

GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS: The coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  are bounded and measurable on the bounded domain G and those for which  $|\alpha| = | | = m$  are continuous on G and we assume that

$$(5.2.7) \qquad (1-h)|\xi|^{2m} \leq \operatorname{Re} \sum_{|\alpha|=|\beta|=m} A_{\alpha\beta}(x)\xi^{\alpha}\xi^{\beta} \leq (1+h)|\xi|^{2m}, 0 < h < 1$$
 for all  $x$  on  $\overline{G}$  and all real  $\xi$ .

THEOREM 5.2.1 (Garding's inequality): There are constants  $M_1$  and  $\lambda_0$ , which depend only on  $\mathbf V$ , m, h, bounds for the coefficients, the moduli of continuity of those  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  with  $|\alpha|=|\beta|=m$ , and the diameter of G, such that  $|B(u,v)| \leq |M_1||u|| ||v||$ , u,  $v \in H_{20}^m(G)$ Re  $B(u,u) \geq \frac{(1-h)}{2} ||u||^2 - \lambda_0 C(u,u)$  ( $||\mathbf P|| = ||\mathbf P||_{20}^m$ ) ( $||\mathbf P||^2 = \int_G |\nabla^m \mathbf P|^2 dx$ )

<u>Proof:</u> It is sufficient to prove this for u,  $v \in C_c^m(G)$ . The existence of M<sub>1</sub> follows from the form of B and the Poincare inequality (Theorem 2.1.5). To prove the second inequality, let  $\epsilon > 0$ .  $\overline{G}$  can be covered by a finite



number of spheres  $B(x_i, r_i)$  such that  $|A_{\alpha\beta}(x) - A_{\alpha\beta}(x_i)| < \varepsilon$  for  $x \notin \overline{G} \cap B(x_i, r_i)$  for each i, whenever  $|\alpha| = |\beta| = m$ . Clearly, there is a sequence  $\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_S$  in which each  $\zeta_S \notin C^m(E_V)$  and has support in some one sphere  $B_i = B(x_i, r_i)$  such that  $\zeta_1^2 + \ldots + \zeta_S^2 \equiv 1$  on  $\overline{G}$ . Then, as in the proof of Theorem 3.3.2, we see that

$$= \operatorname{Re} \int_{G} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{|\alpha|=|\beta|=m} A_{\alpha\beta}(x_{i}) \overline{D^{\alpha}u_{s}} D^{\beta}u_{s} dx \quad (\operatorname{supt} \zeta_{s} \subset B_{i})$$

$$+ \operatorname{Re} \int_{G} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{|\alpha|=|\beta|=m} [A_{\alpha\beta}(x) - A_{\alpha\beta}(x_{i})] \overline{D^{\alpha}u_{s}} D^{\beta}u_{s} dx$$

Clearly the absolute value of the second term in (5.2.9)

$$(5.2.10) \leq C_1(\boldsymbol{\gamma}, m) \cdot \varepsilon \sum_{s=1}^{S} \| u_s \|^2$$

If we introduce the Fourier transforms  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\mathbf{s}}$  of  $\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{s}}$  by

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{s}(y) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{G} e^{-i\mathbf{x}\cdot\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{u}_{s}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

the Plancherel theorem shows that the first integral in (5.2.9)

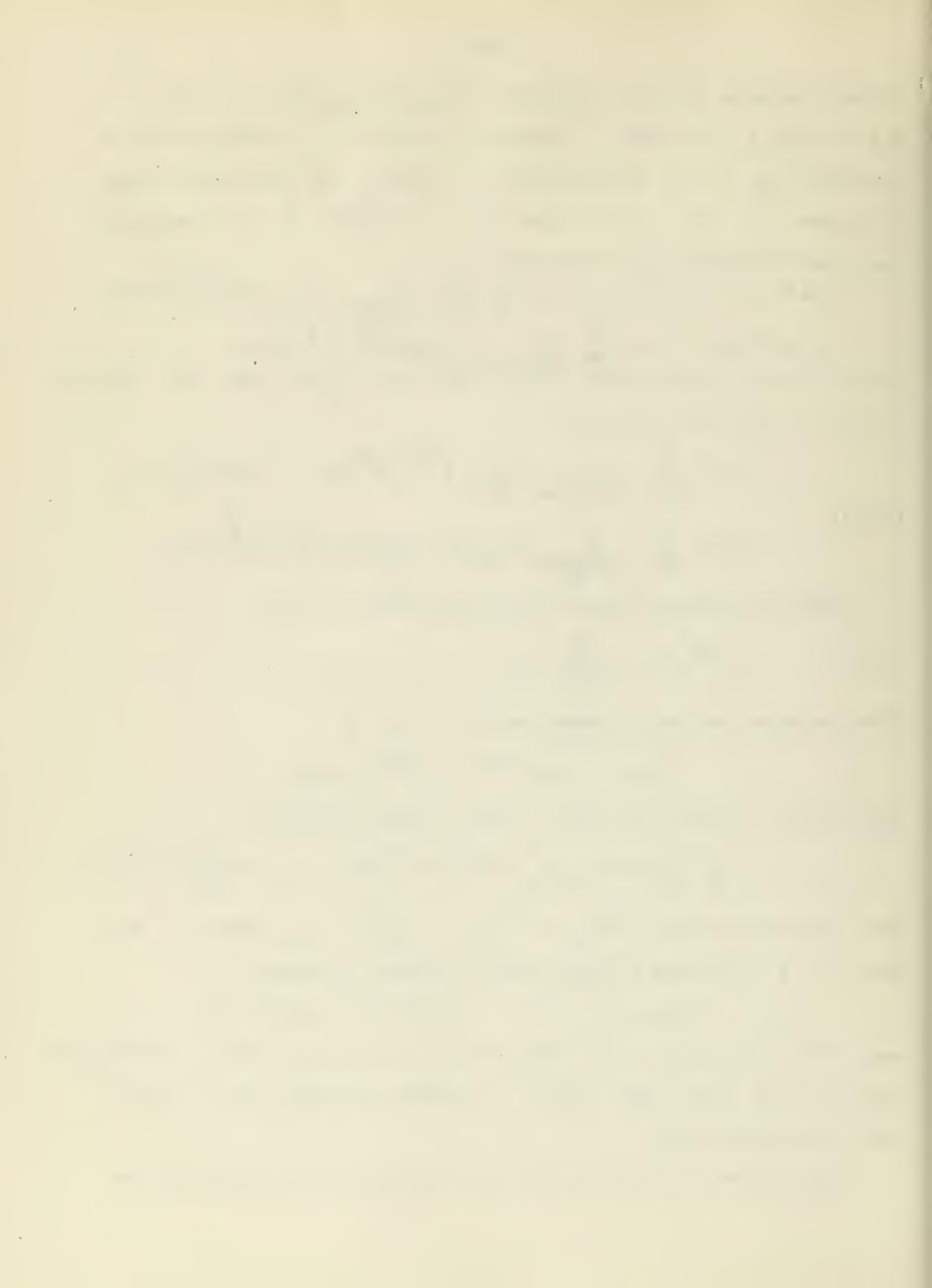
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{s=1}^{S} \left[ \operatorname{Re} A_{\alpha \beta}(x_{i}) y^{\alpha} y^{\beta} | \hat{u}_{s}(y) |^{2} \right] dy \ge (1 - h) \sum_{s=1}^{S} ||u_{s}||^{2}.$$

Now, using the fact that  $\sqrt[7]{m}u_s = \sqrt[7]{m}\zeta_s u = \zeta_s\sqrt[7]{m} + M_s u$ , where  $M_s$  is of order m-1, and using (5.2.8), (5.2.9), (5.2.10), we obtain

Re B(u, u) 
$$\geq$$
 (1 - h - C<sub>1</sub> $\varepsilon$ ) || u ||<sup>2</sup> - Re B''(u, u)

where B" is a form like B". Using Theorem 2.7.3 (we may think of  $\overline{G} \subset B(x_0,R)$ ) and the device  $|2ab| \le \eta a^2 + \eta^{-1}b^2$ , we obtain the result, since  $\varepsilon$  may be taken arbitrarily small.

Using Theorem 5.2.1 and Theorem 3.1.2 (the Lemma of Lax and Wilgram) one



can prove the analog of Theorem 3.1.4 after first proving that of Theorem 3.1.3, the proofs being similar. Then if the coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  are all Lipschitz, the difference-quotient procedure of § 3.2 can be used to show that any solution  $u \in H_2^m(D)$  for each  $D \subseteq G \in H_2^{m+1}(D)$  for each such D if the coefficients  $E_{\alpha}$  in L(v) (see (5.2.2)) are in  $H_2^1(D)$  for such D. Instead of doing this the way it was done in § 3.2, it is necessary to carry out the procedure of that section for small neighborhoods mapped on spheres or hemispheres. If G is of class  $G_1^m$ , the mappings may be of that class and B(u, v) corresponds to a form in which the coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  are Lipschitz in the new coordinates.

LEMMA 5.2.2: If the coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  satisfy the general assumptions on  $\overline{B}_{R_0} = B(x_0, R_0)$ , there exists an  $R_1$  with  $0 < R_1 \le R_0$  which depends on the quantities mentioned in Theorem 5.2.1 such that

 $\text{Re B}(u, \, u) \geq \frac{(1-h)}{2} \left( \left\| u \, \right\|_{R} \right)^{2} \quad \left( \left\| u \, \right\|_{R} = \left\| u \, \right\|_{20R}^{m} \right) \text{ if } 0 < R < R_{1}$   $\underline{\text{if } u \in H_{20R}^{m} \cdot \underline{\text{The same result holds with } B_{R} \text{ replaced by } G_{R} \cdot }$ 

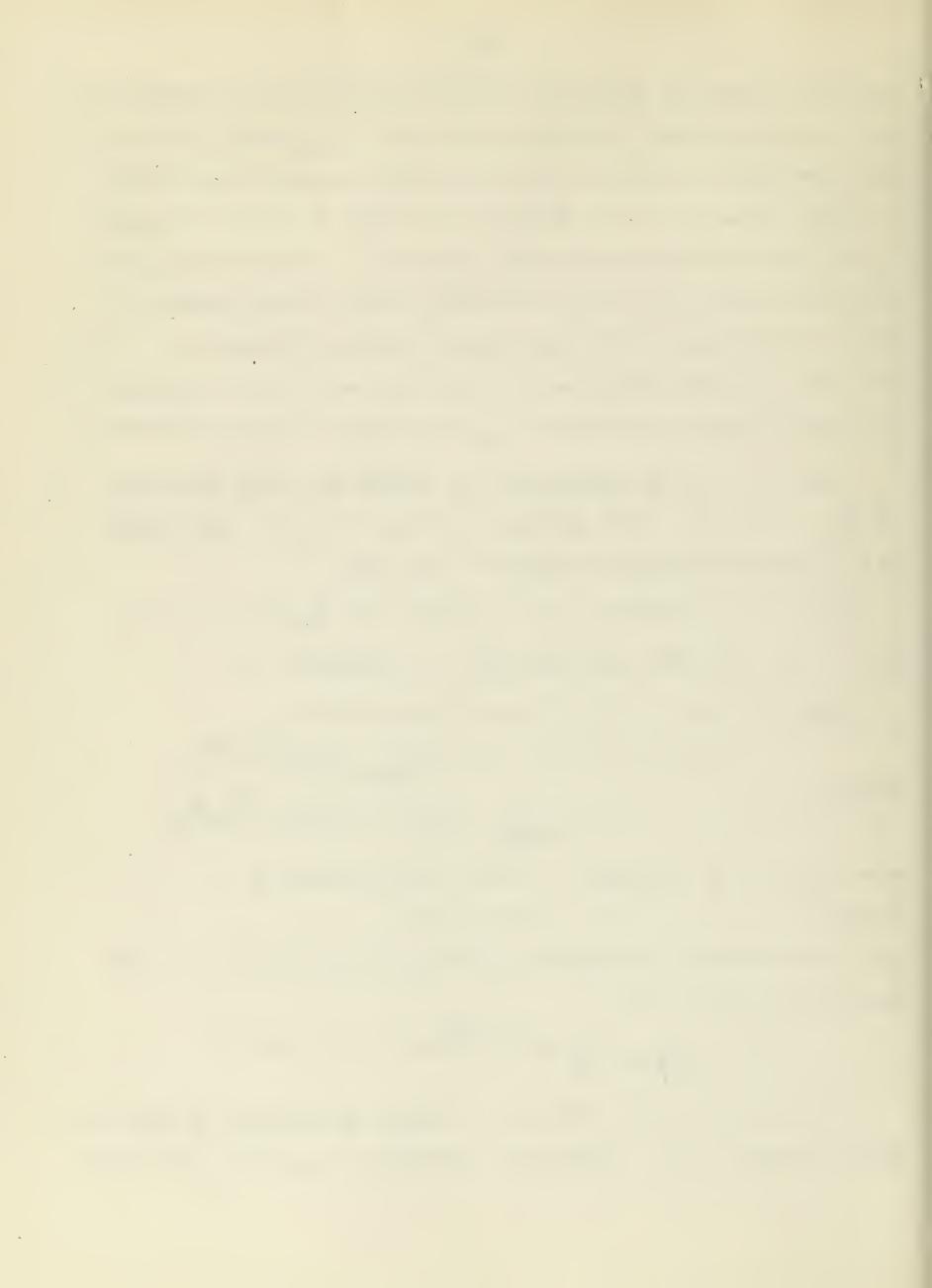
Proof: If we set  $G = B_R$  or  $G_R$  as the case may be,  $B(u, u) = B'(u, u) + \int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha| = |\beta| = m} A_{\alpha\beta}(x_0) \overline{D}^{\alpha} u D^{\beta} u dx$  (5.2.11)  $+ \int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha| = |\beta| = m} [A_{\alpha\beta}(x) - A_{\alpha\beta}(x_0)] \overline{D}^{\alpha} u D^{\beta} u dx$ 

where  $A_{\alpha\beta} = 0$  if  $|\alpha| = |\beta| = m$ . The last term is dominated by (5.2.12)  $\mathcal{E}(R) \cdot ||u||^2$ 

and, as in the proof of the preceding theorem, we see that B (u, u) is also dominated by (5.2.12) and

Re 
$$\int_{G} \sum_{|\alpha| = |\beta| = m} A_{\alpha} \beta^{(x_0)} \overline{D^{\alpha}u} D^{\beta}u dx \ge (1 - h) ||u||^2$$

THEOREM 5.2.2 (Interior boundedness): Suppose the hypotheses of Lemma 5.2.2 hold and suppose  $\mathbb{R} \leq \mathbb{R}_1$ . Suppose the coefficients  $\mathbb{E}_{\alpha}$  in L(v) (see (5.2.2))



 $\mathcal{E}$   $L_2(\mathbb{B}_R)$ , suppose  $u \in H_2^{m-1}(\mathbb{B}_R)$  and  $u \in H_2^m(\mathbb{B}_r)$  for each r < R and suppose u is a solution of (3.1.4) for each  $v \in H_{20}^m$  with compact support in  $\mathbb{B}_R$ . Then

$$(5.2.13) \int_{B_{\mathbf{r}}} |\nabla^{\mathbf{m}} \mathbf{u}|^{2} dx \leq c_{1} (\|\mathbf{u}\|_{2\mathbb{R}}^{m-1})^{2} + c_{2} \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} (\|\mathbf{E}_{\alpha}\|_{2, \mathbb{R}}^{0})^{2}$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  depend only on the quantities mentioned in Theorem 5.2.1 and on R and r. The same result holds if  $B_r$  is replaced by  $G_r$  for  $r \le R$  if  $\nabla^j u = 0$  along  $\sigma_R$  for  $0 \le j \le m-1$ .

Proof: Let  $\zeta(x) = h[(|x - x_0| - r)/(R - r)]$  where h is of class  $C^{\infty}$  on  $E_1$ , h(s) = 1 for  $s \le 1/4$  and h(s) = 0 for  $s \ge 3/4$ , h being monotone. It is sufficient to prove this for  $r \ge R/2$ ; in this case

$$|\nabla^{j} \zeta(x)| \leq h_{j} \cdot (R - r)^{-j}, j = 1, 2, ...$$

Then, define

$$v(x) = \zeta^{m}(x)U(x)$$
,  $U(x) = \zeta^{m}(x)u(x)$ .

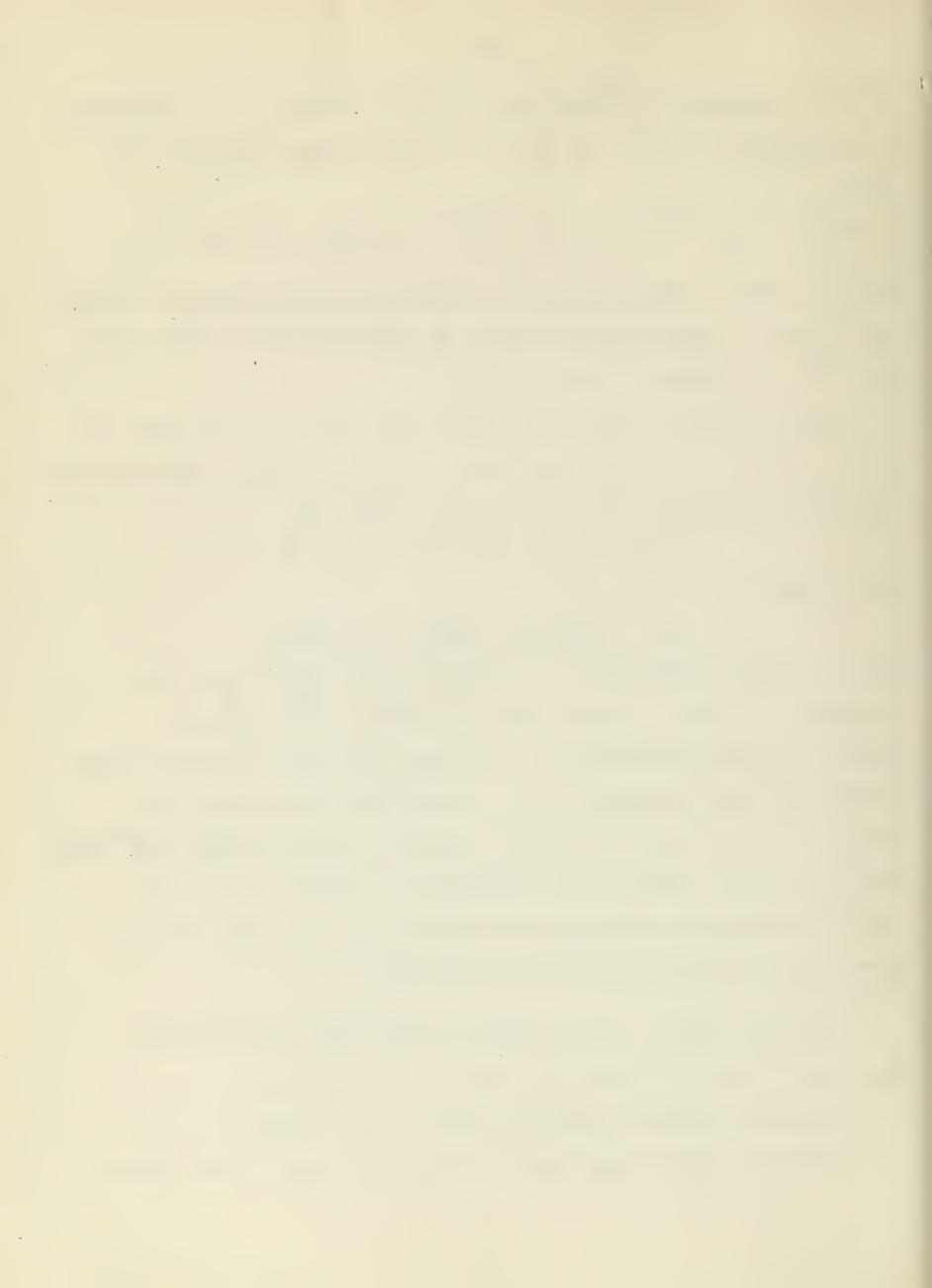
Then it is easy to verify that U,  $v \in H_{20}^m(B_R)$ , have support there, and (5.2.14)  $D^\alpha v = \zeta^m[D^\alpha U + M^\alpha(\zeta, u)]$ ,  $\zeta^m D^\beta u = D^\beta U + M^\beta(\zeta, u)$  where  $M^\alpha$  involves derivatives of u of order  $< |\alpha|$  and  $N^\beta$  those of order  $< |\beta|$ ; both involve derivatives of  $\zeta$ . From (5.2.14), we conclude that (5.2.15)  $B(u, v) = B(U, U) + B_1(U, u) + B_2(u, u)$ ,  $||Lv|| \leq C_3[||U||_{2.5}^m + ||u||_{2.5}^{m-1}]||E||_2^0$  where  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  involve only derivatives of u of order  $\leq m-1$  and  $(||E||_2^0)^2$  denotes the second term on the right in (5.2.13). Thus, from the lemma, (5.2.15), and the usual devices we see that

$$\frac{(1-h)}{h}(\|\|\|\|_{20}^m)^2 - c_h(\|\|\|\|\|_{20}^{m-1})^2 \le c_3[\|\|\|\|\|_{20}^m + \|\|\|\|\|\|_{20}^m]\|\|\|\|\|_{20}^m$$

from which the theorem follows. The proof for  ${\mathbb G}_{\mathbb R}$  is the same.

The following lemma is useful in proving the next theorem.

LEMMA 5.2.3: If 
$$\Gamma$$
 is a cell  $\Gamma$ :  $a^{\alpha} < x^{\alpha} < b^{\alpha}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is



a constant  $C(V, m, \epsilon, \Gamma)$  such that

(5.2.16) 
$$\int \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \sum_{|\alpha| \le j} |D_{\nu}^{2m-j} D^{\alpha} u|^{2} dx \le \mathcal{E} \int |D_{\nu}^{2m} u|^{2} dx + C \int \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{|\beta| \le 2m-j} |D_{\nu}^{j} D^{\beta} u|^{2} dx$$

for all  $u \in H_2^{2m}(\Gamma)$ ; here, we assume  $\alpha_{\nu} = \beta = 0$ .

Proof: We first prove the lemma for the case that u has compact support on some cell  $\Gamma$  and show that  $C_1$  can be chosen so that there is a constant  $C_2$  such that

(5.2.17) 
$$(\|u\|_{2,\Gamma}^{2m})^2 \le c_2 [\varepsilon \int_{\Gamma} |D^{2m}u|^2 dx + c_1 J(u,\Gamma)]$$

where J denotes the last integral in (5.2.16). Letting  $I(u, \Gamma)$  denote the first integral in (5.2.16) and taking Fourier transforms, (5.2.16) and (5.2.17) are equivalent, respectively, to

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \sum_{|\alpha| \le j} [(y^{\nu})^{2m-j} y^{\alpha}]^{2} |\hat{u}(y)|^{2} dy$$

$$\leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ \varepsilon (y^{\nu})^{\lim} + c_{1} \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{|\beta| \le 2m-j} \cdot [(y^{\nu})^{j} y^{\beta}]^{2} \right\} |\hat{u}(y)|^{2} dy = \hat{K}(\hat{u})$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1+|y|^{2})^{2m} |\hat{u}(y)|^{2} dy \leq c_{2} \hat{K}(\hat{u}),$$

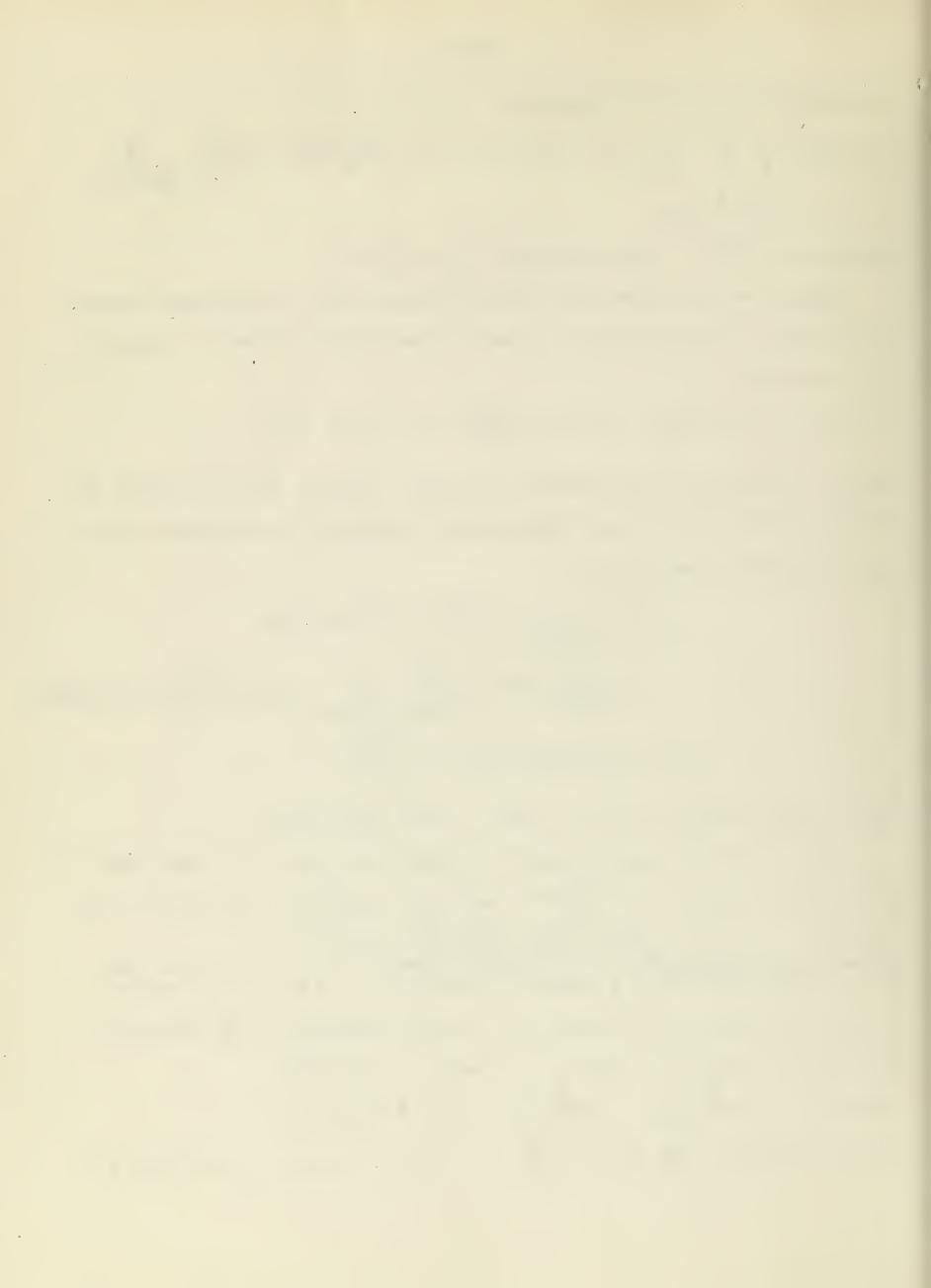
both of which clearly hold if C1 and C2 are large enough.

Now, in general, suppose no such C exists for a given  $\mathcal{E}$ . Then there is a sequence  $u_n \to u$  in  $H_2^{2m}(\Gamma)$  such that  $\|u_n\|_{2,\Gamma}^{2m} = 1$  for each n and (5.2.18)

Since  $I(u_n,\Gamma) \leq \|u_n\|_{2,\Gamma}^{2m}$ ,  $I(u_n,\Gamma) > f_n \|D_n^{2m}u_n\|_{2}^{2m} + nJ(u_n,\Gamma)$ .

Since  $I(u_n,\Gamma) \leq \|u_n\|_{2,\Gamma}^{2m}$ , it follows that u = 0. Now, let us extend each  $u_n$  to a somewhat larger cell  $\Gamma' = [a,b']$  by applying formulas like (2.4.1) across each face in turn. Obviously, we may assume the  $u_n \leq C^m(\Gamma)$ . Moreover, there is a constant  $C_3$  such that  $u_n \leq C^m(\Gamma)$ . Moreover, there is a constant  $C_3$  such that  $u_n \leq C^m(\Gamma)$ . Moreover, there is a constant  $u_n \leq C^m(\Gamma)$ .

for each particular  $\beta$  with  $0 \le |\beta| \le 2m$  and the extended  $u_n \to 0$  in  $\lceil \cdot \cdot \cdot \rceil$ 



Now, let h be the function in the proof of Theorem 5.2.2 and let

$$\zeta(x) = \frac{v}{1} h[(x^{\alpha} - b^{\alpha})/(b^{\alpha} - b^{\alpha})] \cdot h[a^{\alpha} - x^{\alpha})/(a^{\alpha} - a^{\alpha})], U_{n}(x) = \zeta(x)u_{n}(x)$$

Since all the derivatives  $D_{u_n}^{\beta} \longrightarrow 0$  in  $L_2(\Gamma)$  if  $|\xi| \le 2m - 1$ , we see that (5.2.20)  $I(U_n, \Gamma) \ge I(u_n, \Gamma) > c_3^{-1} \mathcal{E} /_{\Gamma} /_{D_n}^{2m} U_n |^2 dx + c_3^{-2} n J(U_n, \Gamma) - \mathcal{E}_n$  (5.2.21)  $1 \le ||U_n||_{2,\Gamma}^{2m} \le c_3(1 + \mathcal{E}_n)$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \varepsilon_n \longrightarrow 0$ 

But since  $U_n$  has compact support and (5.2.21) holds, we see from (5.2.17) that (5.2.22)  $I(U_n, \vec{\epsilon}) > (2^{-1}c_3^{-2}) \int_{\Gamma} |D^{2m}_{\nu}U_n|^2 dx + 2^{-1}c_3^{-2}nJ(U_n, \vec{\epsilon}), n > N_1$ 

But, from the first paragraph, there is a C, such that

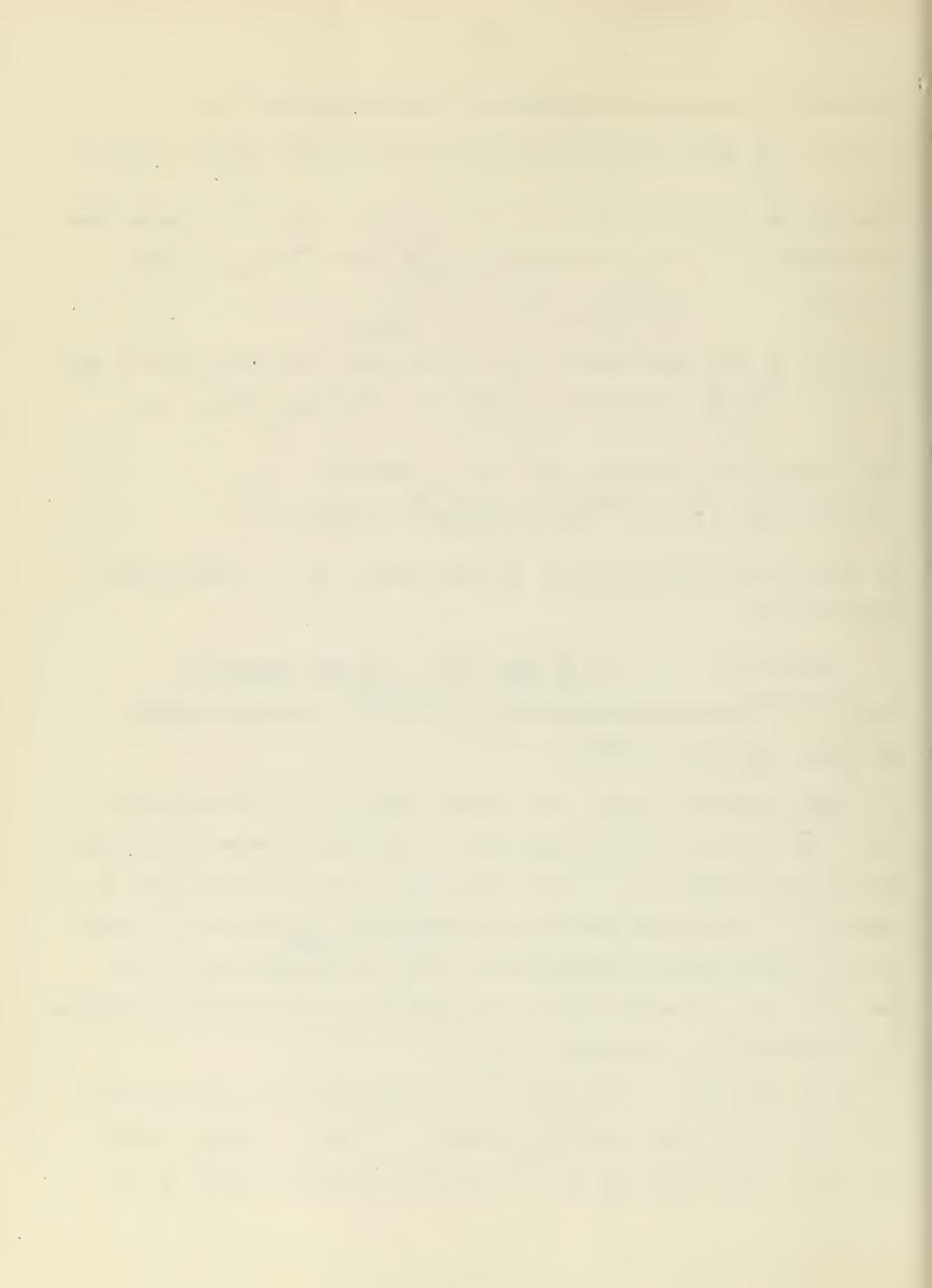
$$(5.2.23) \quad I(U_n, \Gamma) \leq (2^{-1}D_3^2) \int_{\Gamma} |D_n^{2m}U_n|^2 dx + C_1 J(U_n, \Gamma)$$

If  $n > N_2$ , (5.2.22) and (5.2.23) both hold only if  $U_n = 0$ , which contradicts (5.2.21).

THEOREM 5.2.3. If G is of class  $C_1^{2m-1}$ , all the coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}\in C_1^{|\alpha|-1}(\overline{G})$ , and all the coefficients  $E_{\alpha}\in H_2^{|\alpha|}(G)$ , then any solution u in  $H_{20}^m(G)$  of (3.1.4)  $E_{\alpha}^{2m}(G)$ .

<u>Proof:</u> Each point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  in G & a sphere  $B(\mathbf{x}_0, R_0) \subseteq G$  and each point  $\mathbf{x}_0$  on  $\mathbf{\partial} G$  is in a boundary neighborhood N which can be mapped in the usual way onto the half-cube  $C_R: D \leq \mathbf{x}^{|V|} \leq R_0$ ,  $|\mathbf{x}^{|\alpha|}| \leq R_0$  for  $\alpha < \mathbf{V}$  by a map of class  $C_1^{2m}$ ; in the latter case the new coefficients  $A_{\alpha\beta}$  and new  $E_{\alpha}$  satisfy the same differentiability conditions and  $N \cap \mathbf{\partial} G$  corresponds, say to the face  $\mathbf{x}^{|V|} = 0$ . So we may carry out the difference quotient procedure on spheres  $B_R$  or half-cubes  $C_R$  and assume  $R \leq R_1$ .

If we are given r with  $R/2 \le r < R$ , choose  $r' = r + \delta$ ,  $r'' = r + 2\delta$ , where  $R = r + 3\hat{o}$ . Let  $v \in C_c^m(B_r)$ , choose  $\gamma$  between 1 and  $\nu$  and let  $e_r$  denote the unit vector in the  $x^{\gamma}$  direction and define  $v_h$  and  $v_h$  by



$$v_{h}(x) = h^{-1}[v(x - he_{j}) - v(x)] = -h^{-1} \int_{0}^{h} v_{y}(x - te_{y}) dt \quad 0 < |h| < \delta$$

$$(5.2.24) \qquad u_{h}(x) = h^{-1}[u(x + he_{y}) - u(x)]. \qquad x \in B_{r}$$

Then proceeding as in § 3.2 and transposing the terms involving  $D^{\alpha}v$  for  $|\alpha| < m$  to the right side, we see that (3.1.4) becomes

$$(5.2.25) \qquad B_{0}(u_{h}, v; \beta') = L_{h}(v, \beta') \quad (\beta' = \beta_{r})$$

$$B_{0}(u_{h}, v, \beta') = \int_{\beta' |\alpha| = m} A_{\alpha\beta} \overline{D^{\alpha}v} D^{\beta}u_{h} dx$$

$$(5.2.26) \qquad L_{h}(v, \beta') = \int_{\beta'} \left\{ \sum_{|\alpha| = m} E_{h\alpha} \overline{D^{\alpha}v} + \sum_{|\alpha| \leq m} E_{h\alpha} \overline{D^{\alpha}v}_{,\gamma} \right\} dx$$

$$E_{h\alpha}(x) = h^{-1} \Delta E_{\alpha}(x) - h^{-1} \sum_{|\beta| \leq m} D^{\beta}u(x + he_{j}) \Delta A_{\alpha} \beta(x) \text{ if } |\alpha| = m$$

$$E_{h\alpha}(x) = h^{-1} \int_{0}^{h} \sum_{|\beta| \leq m} \left\{ A_{\alpha\beta}(x + te_{\gamma})D u(x + te_{\gamma}) - E_{\alpha}(x + te_{\gamma}) \right\} dt$$

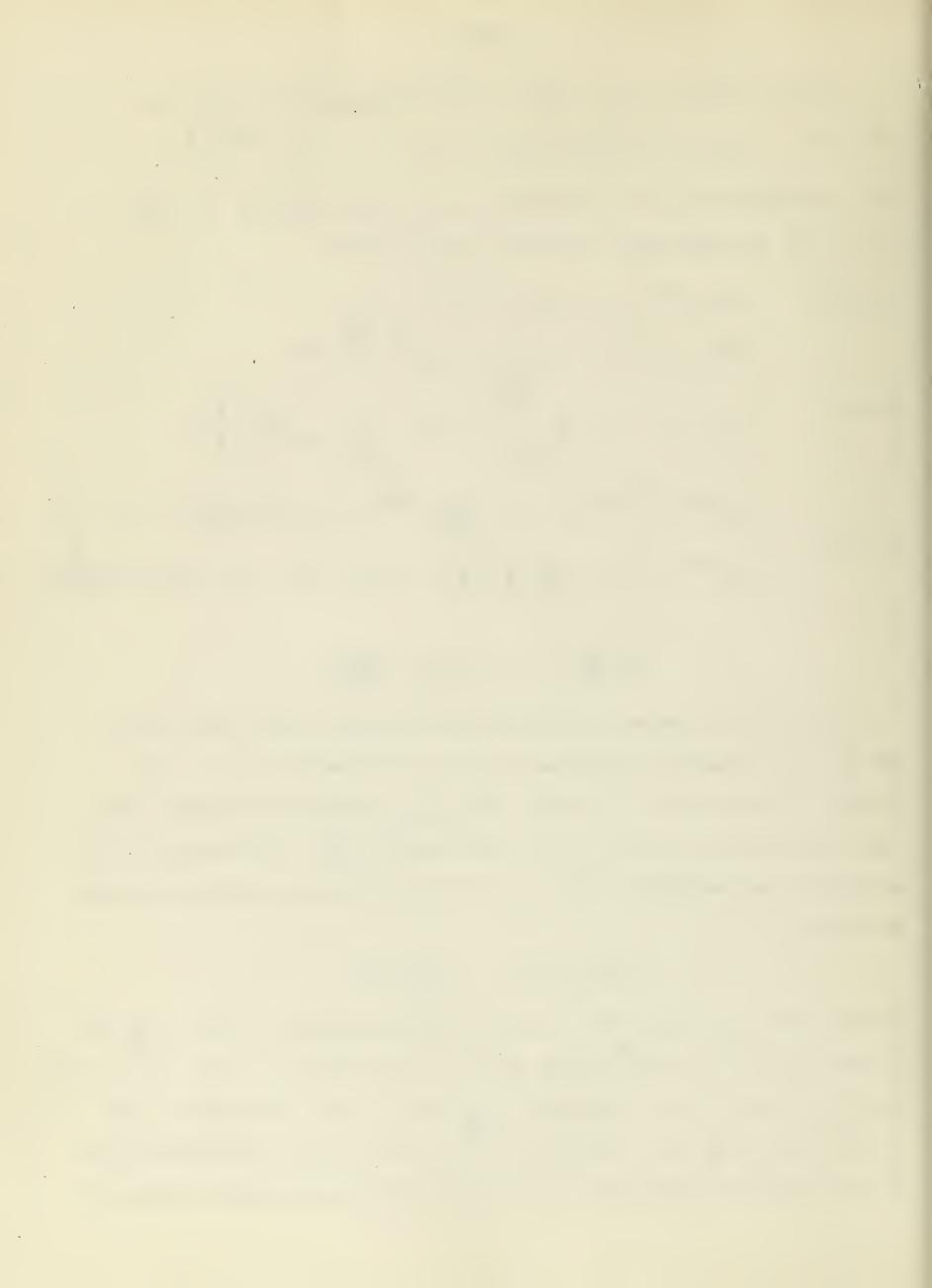
$$\text{if } |\alpha| < m$$

$$(\Delta \mathcal{P}(x) = (x + he_{\gamma}) - \mathcal{P}(x))$$

Now, from the formulas (5.2.25) through (5.2.27), we notice that the  $u_h$  and the  $E_{n\alpha}$  satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 5.2.2 uniformly in h for  $0 < |h| < \delta$  and x on B so that  $\|\nabla^m u_h\|_{2,B}^0$  is uniformly bounded. Hence, for a subsequence of h  $\longrightarrow 0$ ,  $u_h \longrightarrow$  something in  $H_2^m(\mathbb{D})$  which must be  $u_{,\gamma}$ . As in § 3.2, we conclude that the  $u_{,\gamma}$  satisfy the limiting equations which are of the form

$$B_0(u, \gamma, v; B) = L_{1\gamma}(v, B)$$

in which the  $E_{1\dot{\gamma}\alpha}$  with  $|\alpha|=m$  involve first derivatives of those  $A_{\alpha}\beta$  and  $E_{\alpha}$  with  $|\alpha|=m$ , the  $D\beta$ u with  $|\beta|\leq m$ , and certain  $E_{\alpha}$  with  $|\alpha|=m-1$ ; the  $E_{1\dot{\gamma}\alpha}$  with  $|\alpha|< m$  involve the  $A_{\dot{\gamma}}\beta$  and  $E_{\dot{\gamma}}$  with  $|\gamma|=|\alpha|+1$  and the  $D\beta$ u with  $|\beta|\leq m$ . It can be verified that the given differentiability of the coefficients and of the  $E_{\alpha}$  allows the difference-quotient procedure to



be carried out m times to conclude that  $u \in H_2^{2m}(B_r)$  for each r < R.

In case we are working on  $C_R$  and  $\nabla^j u = 0$  on  $\gamma_R$  (where  $x^{\mathcal{V}} = 0$ ) or  $0 \le j \le m-1$ , the difference-quotient procedure can be carried out in the tangential directions to conclude that every  $D^\alpha u$  with  $|\alpha| \le m$  in which no derivative with respect to  $x^{\mathcal{V}}$  is involved  $\mathcal{E} H_2^m(C_R)$  for each r < R and vanishes with its derivatives of order  $\le m-1$  on  $\gamma_R$ . On any subdomain  $C_{r_{\mathcal{K}_1}}$  of  $C_R$  where  $y^{\mathcal{V}} > \eta > 0$ , the procedure can be carried out in the  $x^{\mathcal{V}}$  direction also, so that  $u \in H_2^{2m}$  on any such domain and satisfies an equation (5.2.28)

on  $C_r$ . On account of the ellipticity, the equation (5.2.28) can be solved for  $D_1^{2m}$  u in terms of the other derivatives. Thus

$$(\|D_{\mathbf{v}}^{2m}u\|_{2}^{0})_{\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{n}}}^{2} \leq C[I(u, C_{\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{n}}}) + J(u, C_{\mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{n}}})]$$

But, using the lemma with  $\mathcal{E} = 1/2 \, \text{C}$ , we conclude that

(5.2.29) 
$$(\|D_{\mathbf{v}}^{2m}\mathbf{u}\|_{2}^{0})_{\mathbf{r}\eta}^{2} \leq C J(\mathbf{u}, C_{\mathbf{r}\eta})$$

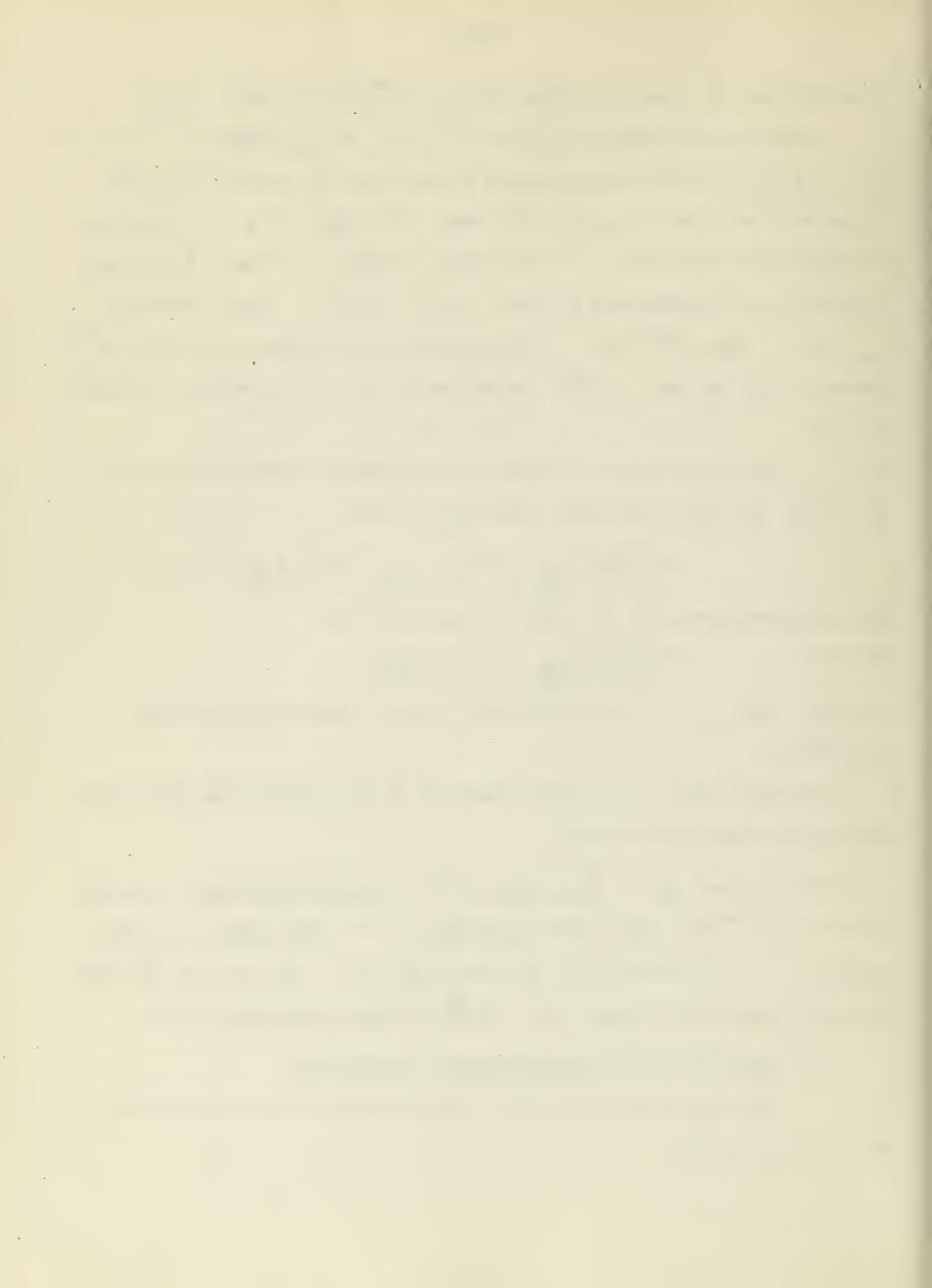
But since  $J(u, C_r) < \infty$ , we use (5.2.29) and the lemma to conclude that  $u \in H_2^{2m}(C_r)$ .

By keeping track of the differentiability of the coefficients, it is seen that we have proved the following

THEOREM 5.2.4: If G is of class  $C_1^{2m-1}$  and the coefficients  $a_\alpha$  with  $|\alpha| > m \ C_1^{|\alpha|-m-1}(\overline{G})$  and (5.1.5) holds with p = 1, then there is a unique solution u in  $H_2^{2m}(G) \cap H_{10}^{m}(G)$  of (5.1.1) for any  $\lambda$  not in a set  $\mathcal{L}$  without limit points in the plane. If  $\lambda \in \mathcal{L}$ , the usual alternative holds.

## 5.3. Reduction of the differentiability requirements.

It is now possible to remove the differentiability restrictions on the  $a_{\alpha}$  as in § 3-3.



GENERAL ASSUMPTIONS: We assume that the  $a_{\alpha}$  are bounded and measurable with those for which  $|\alpha|=2m$  continuous on our domain  $\overline{G}$  and we also assume that the equation (5.1.1) is uniformly elliptic, at least.

$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{2,R}^{2m} \le C \| \mathbf{L} \mathbf{u} \|_{2,R}^{0}, 0 < R \le R_{1}$$

if u & H<sub>2</sub><sup>2m</sup>(B<sub>R</sub>) and vanishes near  $\partial$ B<sub>R</sub>; here

h = min 
$$|L'(x, \xi)|$$
,  $\xi$  real.

(b) The corresponding result holds on  $G_R$  if L is strongly elliptic and (5.1.5) holds with  $p \equiv 1$ , provided u vanishes near  $\sum_R$  and  $\nabla^j u = 0$  along  $\sigma_R$  for  $0 \le j \le m - 1$ .

Proof of (a): If 
$$L_0 u = \sum_{|\alpha|=2m} a_{\alpha}(0)D^{\alpha}u$$
, we see that 
$$L_0 u = Lu - \sum_{|\alpha|=2m} [a_{\alpha}(x) - a_{\alpha}(0)]D^{\alpha}u - \sum_{|\alpha|<2m} a_{\alpha}(x)D^{\alpha}u$$

By taking Fourier transforms, we see that

$$(\| L_{0}u\|_{2R}^{0})^{2} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |L_{0}(y)|^{2} |\hat{u}_{R}(y)|^{2} dy \ge h^{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |y|^{\lim} |\hat{u}(y)|^{2} dy$$

$$= h^{2} \| \nabla^{2m}u\|_{R}^{2}$$

$$\| \nabla^{2m-j}u\|_{2\cdot R}^{0} \le 2^{-j/2} \| J^{2m}u\|_{2\cdot R}^{0} .$$

The remainder of the proof is like that of Lemma 3.3.1.

Proof of (b): We shall first prove (b) with L replaced by the operator  $L_0$  of part (a) which is now strongly elliptic. Since u vanishes near  $\sum_R$ , it follows by successive integrations that

$$\|\nabla^{2m-j}u\|_{2,R}^{0} \leq c_{j}R^{j}\|\nabla^{2m}u\|_{2,R}^{0}$$



The remainder of the proof is like that of Lemma 3.3.1.

Next, let  $\varphi$  be a mollifier in the variables x, and let u denote the  $\varphi$ -mollified functions in these variables. By approximating u by  $C^{2m}$  functions it is easy to derive formulas for the derivatives of u, which show that if  $\rho > 0$ , each  $D^{\gamma}u_{\rho} \in C^{m-1}(\overline{G}_R) \cap H_2^{2m}(G_R)$  if  $\gamma$  is any index-vector with  $\gamma = 0$ ; moreover, if  $\rho$  is small enough, the u vanish hear  $\sum_R$  and  $\nabla^2 Ju_{\rho} = 0$  along  $\sigma_R$  if  $0 \le j \le m-1$ . We prove the result for u and then let  $\rho \longrightarrow 0$ .

If  $0 < \rho < \rho_0$ , we have, by integration by parts

(5.3.1)

Re 
$$\int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} \sum_{\mathbf{r}} (\mathbf{D}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{L}_{0}(\mathbf{D}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{x} = \mathbb{R}e \int_{G_{\mathbb{R}}} \sum_{\mathbf{r}} \sum_{|\alpha| = |G| = m} \mathbf{A}_{\alpha \mathbf{r}}(0) \overline{\mathbf{D}^{\alpha + \mathbf{r}} \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{r}^{\beta + \mathbf{r}} \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{r}^{\alpha + \mathbf{r}} \mathbf{u} \, \mathbf{r}^{\beta + \mathbf{r}}$$

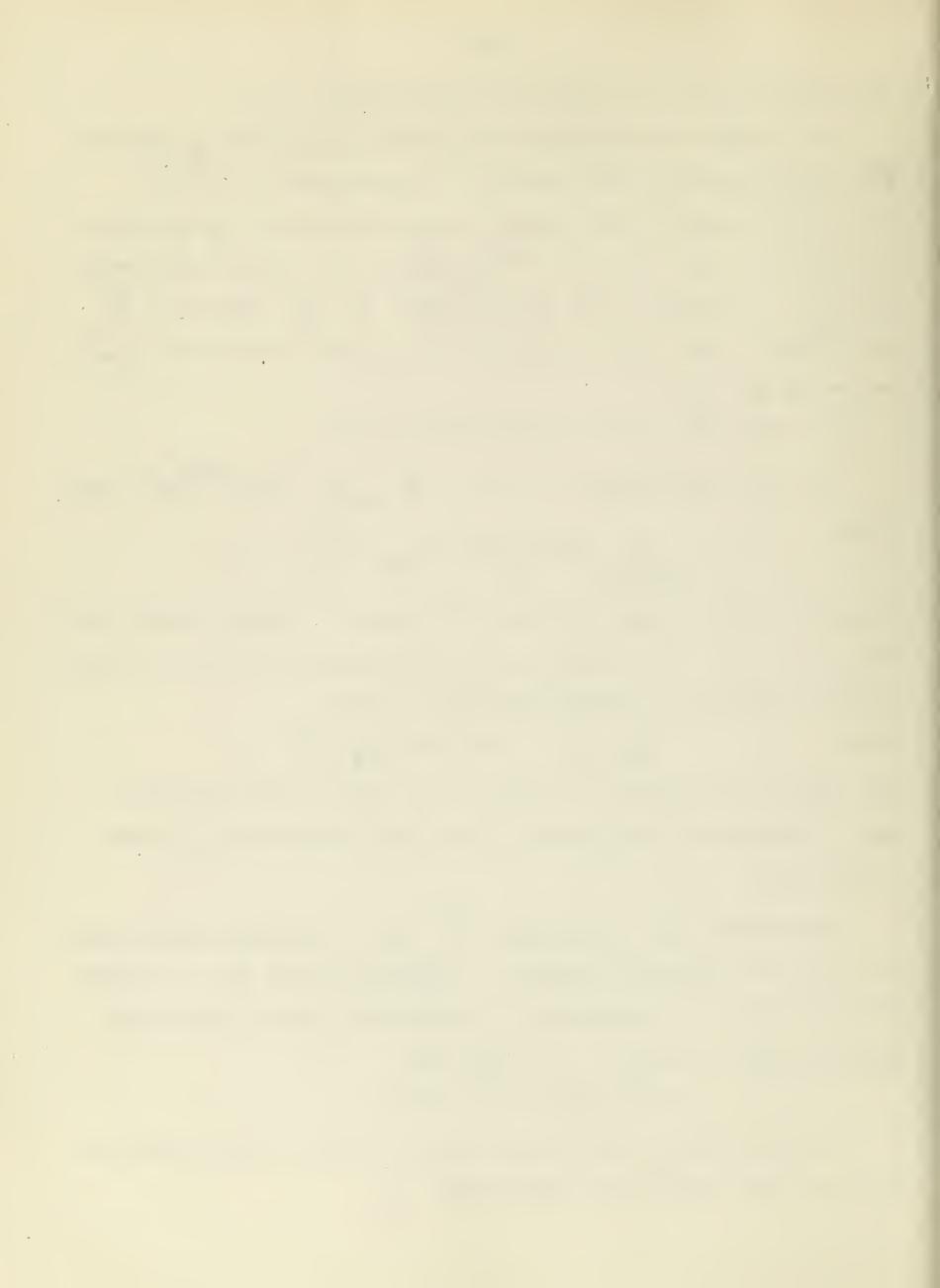
to use the notation of Lemma 5.2.3; here the summation is extended overall index sequences  $\gamma$  with  $|\gamma| = m$  and  $\gamma_{\mathcal{V}} = 0$ . Integrating the left side of (5.3.1) by parts and applying the Schwarz inequality, we obtain

(5.3.2) 
$$J(u_{\rho}, G_{R} \leq C(\nu, m)(\|L_{O}u_{\rho}\|_{2}^{O})^{2}$$

But,  $D_{\nu}^{2m}u\rho$  can be solved for in terms of  $L_0u$  and the other derivatives. Thus, by repeating the last paragraph of the proof of Theorem 5.2.3, we arrive at the result.

THEOREM 5.3.1: If G is of class  $C_1^{2m-1}$  and L is strongly elliptic with  $p \equiv 1$  in (5.1.5), there is a constant C, depending only on  $\gamma$ , m, k (strong ellipticity bound), G, the bounds for the coefficients, and the moduli of continuity of those  $a_{\alpha}$  with  $|\alpha| = 2m$ , such that  $\|u\|_2^{2m} \leq C(\|\|Lu\|_2^0 + \|\|u\|_1^0)$ 

The proof parallels that of Theorem 3.3.1; of course the affine transformations are neither necessary nor advantageous.



THEOREM 5.3.2: Under the hypotheses of Theorem 5.3.1, there is a real number  $\lambda_0$  and a constant C, depending only on the quantities mentioned in that theorem, such that

$$\|u\|_2^{2m} \leq C\|Lu + \lambda u\|_2^0 \text{ if } \lambda \text{ real }, \lambda \geq \lambda_0 \text{ , } u \in H_2^{2m}(G) \wedge H_{20}^m(G) \text{ .}$$

The proof parallels that of Theorem 3.3.2.

of this section.

The conclusions of Theorem 5.2.4 hold under the hypotheses

The proof parallels that of Theorem 3.3.3.

5.4. The fundamental solution of an elliptic equation with constant coefficients. In order to obtain "Schauder estimates," i.e., estimates concerning the Hölder continuity, for the solutions of elliptic equations, it is expedient to have a fundamental solution" for such an equation with constant coefficients to take the place of the function  $K_0(y)$  of Chapters 1, 2, and 3. We assume an equation of the form (5.1.1) with  $\lambda=0$  where L is elliptic, has constant coefficients, is of order 2m, and L=L'.

Let us assume that  $f \in C_c^{\infty}(E)$  and introduce the Fourier transforms  $\widehat{u}(y) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i(y \cdot x)} u(x) dx$ 

$$\hat{f}(y) = (2\pi^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i(y \cdot 5)} f(5) d5$$

Taking the transform of equation (5.1.1) leads to the equation

(5.1.2) 
$$L(y)\hat{u}(y) = \hat{f}(y)$$
,  $L(y) = \sum_{\alpha = 2m} a_{\alpha} y^{\alpha}$ 

However,  $L(y) \neq 0$  for  $y \neq 0$  but is homogeneous of degree 2m and so vanishes to that order at the origin. Consequently a rigorous solution of (5.1.1) cannot be given using this method, without some modifications.

Accordingly, we shall use (5.4.2) merely to give a heuristic derivation of a formula for the fundamental solution as follows: Taking the inverse Fourier



transform in (5.4.1) and (5.4.2), we obtain

$$u(x) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iy \cdot x} L^{-1}(y) [\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-iy \cdot \xi} f(\xi) d\xi] dy$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi, \text{ where}$$

$$(5.4.4) \qquad K(x) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iy \cdot x} L^{-1}(y) dy$$

formally. Now, in (5.4.4), we take polar coordinates  $y = r^n$ , where  $|\eta| = 1$  and (5.4.4) becomes

Now, if  $m \ge \nu/2$ , the integral in the bracket diverges at r = 0, and if  $m < \nu/2$ , it diverges at  $\infty$ . However, it is a function  $\mathbb{F}[i(x \cdot n)]$ .

Now, if we write

(5.4.6) 
$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{|\boldsymbol{\eta}|=1} L^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) F[i(\mathbf{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\eta})] d \sum_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} (\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

and F & C2m and analytic, we notice that

$$D^{\alpha} \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{|\boldsymbol{\eta}| = 1} \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\alpha} L^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) F^{|\alpha|}[\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\eta})] d \sum_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} (\boldsymbol{\eta}),$$

$$L \varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{|\boldsymbol{\eta}| = 1} F^{(2m)}[\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{\eta})] d \sum_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} (\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \Psi(|\mathbf{x}|).$$

If we consider the function

(5.4.8) 
$$F(\cdot) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} r^{h-1} e^{rs} dr = f_{h}(s) \cdot (2\pi)^{-1} V$$
 we see that, if  $h \ge 1$ , this is analytic for  $\Re(s) < 0$  and, in fact

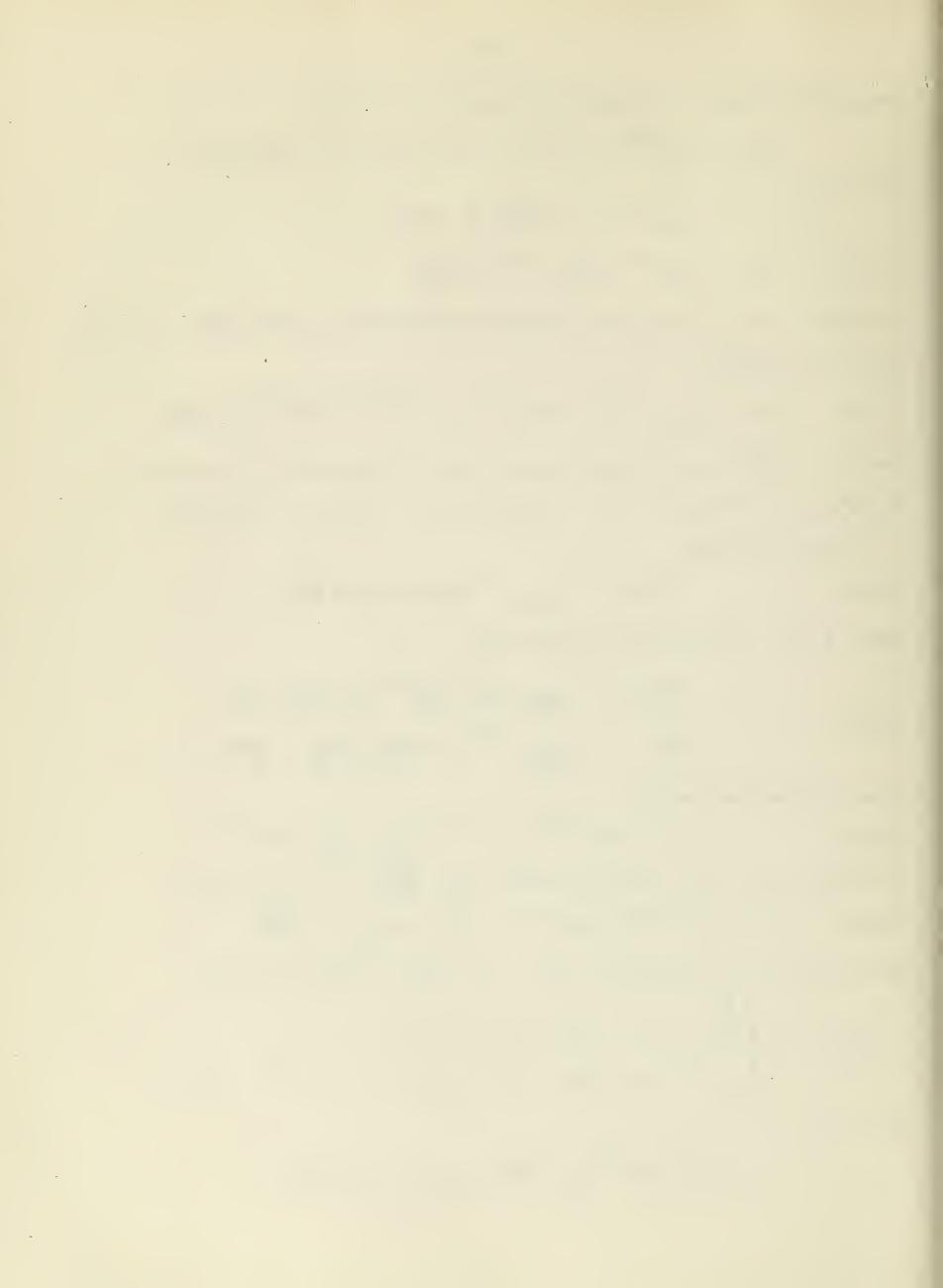
$$(5.4.9)$$
  $f_n(s) = (-1)^{h-1}(h-1)! s^{-h}$ ,  $f_h(s) = f_{h+1}(s)$ ,  $\Re(s) < 0$ .

If we use (5.4.9) to define  $f_h$  for  $h \le 0$ , we are lead to defining

$$J_{h}(s) = \begin{cases} \frac{s^{h}}{h!} [\log (-s) - C_{h}], h \ge 0, C_{0} = 0\\ (-1)^{1-h}(-h - 1)!s^{h}, h < 0, C_{h} = 1 + \dots + h^{-1}, h \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

If we set

$$K(x) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{\Sigma} L^{-1}(\mathbf{q}) J_{2m-1}[i(x \cdot \eta)] d \Sigma(\eta),$$



the step (5.4.7) could not be carried ..., since  $J_{-\nu}[i(x\cdot n)]$  would not be integrable. So, we choose q = 0 or 1 so that i > + q is even and define

$$K^{*}(x) = -(2\pi i)^{-1/2} i^{-1} \int_{\Sigma} L^{-1}(\eta) J_{2m+q}[i(x \cdot \eta)] d \sum_{(5.4.10)} (5.4.10)$$

$$K(x) = \Delta^{(1/2+q)/2} K^{*}(x).$$

Now, if 1/ is even so q = 0, it is clear (cf. 5.4.12 below) that

(5.4.11) 
$$K^*(-x) = K^*(x) = P(x) \log |x| + Q(x)$$
 (1) even)

where P is a homogeneous polynomial of degree 2m and Q is positively homogeneous of degree 2m. If  $\gamma$  is odd, so q = 1, we have

$$K^{*}(x) = -(2\pi i)^{-1} i - q \int_{\Sigma} L^{-1}(\eta) \frac{i^{2m+q}(x - \eta)^{2m+q}}{(2m+q)!} [\log |x| + \log \frac{1}{i} - C_{2m+q}] d\Sigma(\eta)$$

$$(5.4.12) = -(2\pi i)^{-1} (-1)^{m} |x|^{2m+q} \int_{\Sigma} L^{-1}(\eta) \frac{(\xi - \eta)^{2m+q}}{(2m+q)!} (-i\pi) d\Sigma(\eta)$$

$$= -(2\pi i)^{-1} (\pi/2) i^{2m-1} |x|^{2m+q} \int_{\Sigma} L^{-1}(\eta) \cdot [|\xi - \eta|^{2m+q}/(2m+q)!] d\Sigma.$$
In this case  $K^{*}$  is positively homogeneous of degree  $2m + q$  and

(5.4.13)  $K^*(-x) = K^*(x)$ .

In either case

(5.4.14) 
$$LK^{*}(x) = M(x) = -(2\pi i)^{-1} \int_{\overline{\Sigma}} J_{q}[i(x \cdot \eta)] d\underline{\Sigma}(\eta)$$

and K has homogeneity properties like those of  $K^*$  and K also satisfies (5.4.13). We now prove

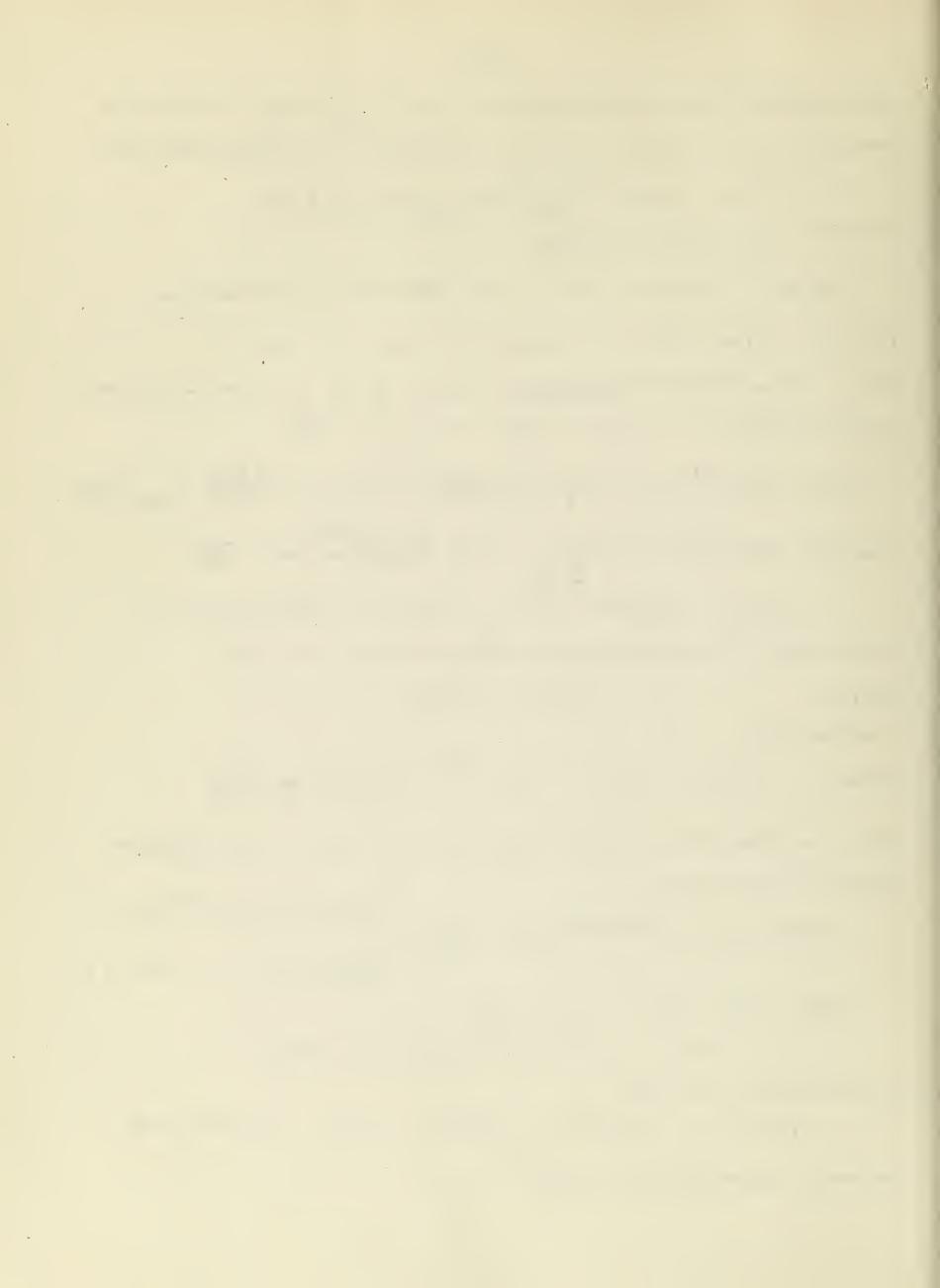
THEOREM 5.4.1: 
$$\triangle (\nu+q-2)/2$$
  $M(x) = K_0(x) = \begin{cases} -(\nu-2)^{-1} |x|^{2-\nu}, \nu > 2. \\ \frac{1}{2\pi} \log |x|, \nu = 2. \end{cases}$ 

Proof: If 1) = 2k so q = 0, then
$$M(x) = (-1)^{k-1} (2\pi)^{-2k} \left| \Gamma_{2k} \log |x| + const. \right|$$

By computation, we see that

$$\Delta^{k-1}M(x) = 2 \cdot (2\pi)^{-2k} \left[ \sum_{2k} (-1)^{k-2} (k-2)!(k-1)! \cdot 2^{2k-l_1} |x|^{2-2k} \right]$$

The result follows from the formula



$$\Gamma_{\nu} = \frac{2\pi^{\nu/2}}{\Gamma(\nu)}, \quad \Gamma_{2k} = \frac{2\pi^{k}}{(k-1)!}.$$

If = 2k + 1, q = 1, then

$$M(x) = -(2\pi)^{2k-1}(-1)^{k+1} \int_{\Sigma} i(x \cdot \eta)[\log |x| + \log \frac{3 \cdot \eta}{i} - 1] d \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\eta)^{k} d \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\eta)^{k} (2\pi)^{-2k-1} i|x| \int_{\Sigma} (\eta)^{k} (\eta)^{k} d \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\eta)^{k} (2\pi)^{-2k-1} |x| \cdot \int_{0}^{\pi/2} |x| = C |x|$$

$$= (-1)^{k} \pi^{-2k} \cdot 2^{-2k-1} |x| \cdot (2k)^{-1} |x| = C |x|$$

Then

$$\frac{A^{-1+(1)+q)/2}}{4^{-1+(1)+q)/2}} |_{M(x)} = \frac{A^{k}}{m^{-k}} |_{M(x)} = \frac{C(-1)^{k-1}(2k-2)!}{(k-1)!} |_{X}|^{1-2k} = -(2k-1)^{-1} \pi^{-k} \frac{(k-\frac{1}{2}) \cdot \cdot \cdot (\frac{1}{2}) \cdot (k-1)!}{2(k-1)!}$$

$$= -(2k-1)^{-1} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(k+1/2)}{2\pi^{k+1/2}} |_{X}|^{1-2k} = K_{0}(x) .$$

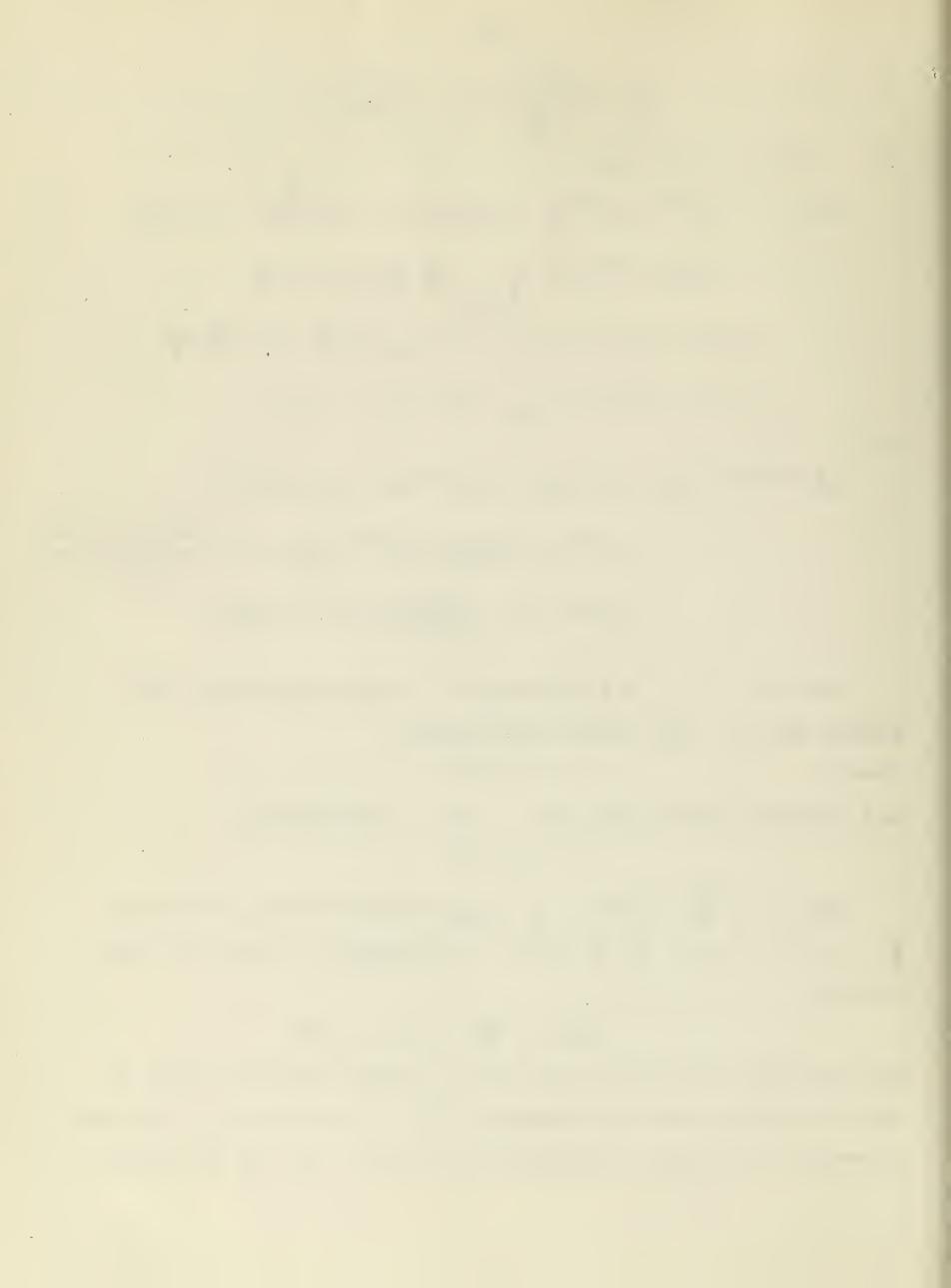
LEMMA 5.1: If  $x_0$  is a real vector  $\neq 0$ , there are functions  $c_{\alpha}^{\gamma}(x)$ , analytic near  $x_0$ , such that the transformation  $\zeta^{\gamma} = c_{\alpha}^{\gamma}(x) \gamma^{\alpha}$ 

is a rotation of axes for each real x near  $x_0$  and such that  $x \cdot m = |x|\zeta^1$ 

Proof: Let  $\xi^{\alpha} = x^{\alpha}/|x|$ . By a <u>fixed</u> rotation of axes, we may assume  $\xi_0 = (1, 0, ..., 0)$ . If, in (5.4.15) the superscript  $\gamma$  denotes the row, we define

$$c_{\alpha}^{1}(x) = \xi^{\alpha}, \alpha = 1, ..., \nu$$

and then notice that there is a unique way to complete the matrix  $\mathbf{c}_{\alpha}^{\gamma}(\mathbf{x})$  in such a way that the matrix is orthogonal,  $\mathbf{c}_{\alpha}^{\gamma}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for  $\alpha > \gamma \geq 2$ , and each determinant in the upper left hand corner is positive. The  $\mathbf{c}_{\alpha}^{\gamma}$  are analytic.



THEOREM 5.1.2: 
$$K^*$$
 and  $K$  are analytic and  $LK(x) = 0$  for  $x \neq 0$ .

If 
$$f \in C_{\mu}^{O}(\overline{B}_{R})$$
, and
$$u(x) = \int_{B_{R}} K(x - \xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$

then  $u \in C_{H}^{2m}(\overline{B}_{R})$  and

$$Lu(x) = f(x)$$
,  $h_{\mu}(\sqrt{2m}u) \leq C(m, 1)$ ,  $h)h_{\mu}(f)$ 

<u>Proof:</u> We shall prove the analyticity for  $\nu$  odd, using the representation (5.4.12); the proof for  $\nu$  even is similar. Using the lemma, we may introduce variables  $\zeta$  by

$$\mathbf{\eta}^{\alpha} = c_{\gamma}^{\alpha}(x)\zeta^{\gamma} = \mathbf{\eta}^{\alpha}[x; \zeta]$$

into (5.4.12) and obtain

$$K^*(x) = C|x|^{2m+1} \int_{\zeta'>0} L^{-1}[n(x; \zeta)](\zeta^1)^{2m+1} d\Sigma(\zeta)$$

which is analytic near any real  $x \neq 0$ .

Define 
$$U(x) = \int_{B_R} K^*(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$
.

Then we note that any (2m + V + q - 1)st derivative

$$D^{2m+1/4-1}U(x) = \int_{B_R} \Gamma(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$
,

where  $\Gamma$  satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1.5.4. Hence  $U \in C_{\mu}^{2m+\mathcal{V}+q}(\overline{\mathbb{B}}_R)$  and  $u \notin C_{\mu}^{2n}(\overline{\mathbb{F}}_R)$  with  $h_{\mu}(\nabla^{2m}u) \leq Ch_{\mu}(f)$ , since

$$\triangle^{(1)+q)/2} U(x) = u(x) .$$

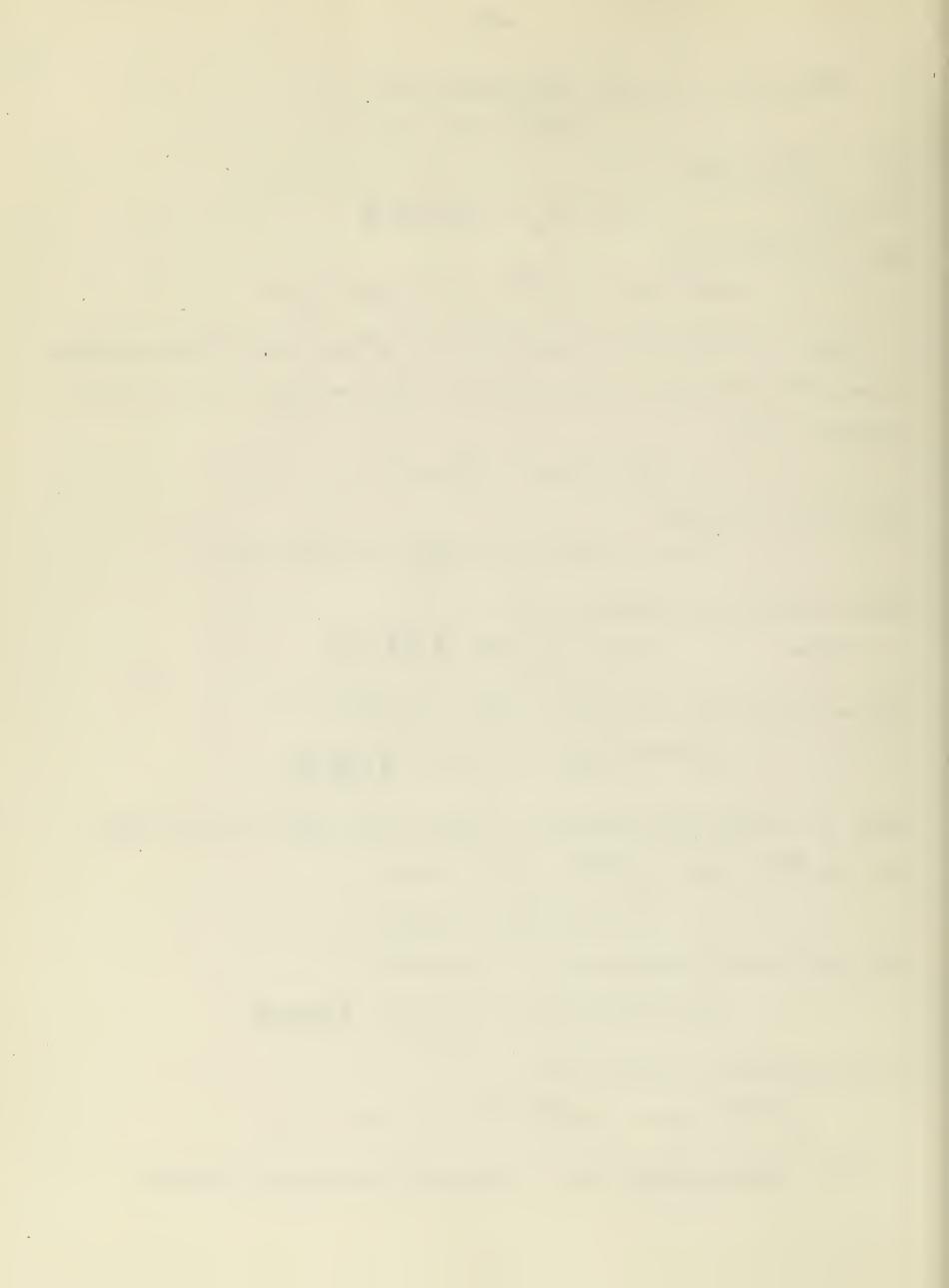
Now, from 5.4.11 and Theorem 5.1.1, it follows that

$$\Delta^{-1+(1)+q)/2} LU(x) = \int_{B_R} K_0(x-\xi)f(\xi)d\xi$$

so that (corollary to Theorem 1.5.4)

$$\triangle^{(\mathbf{V}+q/2)} LU(x) = L\triangle^{(\mathbf{V}+q)/2} U(x) = Lu(x) = f(x).$$

5.5. Hölder continuity and Lp bounds for the solutions of elliptic



equations in the interior. The developments in this section parallel those of § 3.4. We state the following theorem without proof:

THEOREM 5.5.1 (Calderon-Zygmund theorem): Suppose  $J \in C^k(E_{\mathcal{V}} - \{0\})$  and is homogeneous of degree -  $\mathcal{V}$  with

(5.5.1) 
$$\int_{3} 3(0, 1) J(\eta) d \sum_{i} (\eta) = 0$$

Then there is a constant C(p) such that if  $f \in L_p(E_p)$ , | , and <math>(5.5.2)  $u(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} J(x - 5)f(5)d5$ ,

then u is defined as Cauchy principal value almost everywhere, u  $\mathcal{E}$  Lp(E<sub>V</sub>), and  $\|u\|_p^0 \le C(p)\|f\|_p^0$ 

Now, we proceed as in § 3.4. Suppose that u is a solution of (5.1.1) with  $\lambda = 0$  on  $B_R$  where the coefficients satisfy the assumptions of § 5.3. We let  $L_0$  be the operator of Lemma 5.3.1 and set

$$(5.5.3)$$
  $u = u_R + H_R$ ,  $u_R = P_R(L_O u)$ 

(5.5.4) 
$$U_{R} = P_{R}(f) \text{ iff } U_{R}(x) = \int_{B_{R}} K(x - \xi) f(\xi) d\xi$$

For  $u_R$ , we have the equation

$$u_R - T_R u_R = v_R$$
,  $T_R u_R = P_R [(L - L_O)u_R]$ ,

$$v_R = P_R(Lu) + T_R H_R$$
; also  $L_0 H_R(x) = 0$  on  $B_R$ .

For  $| and <math>0 < \mu < 1$ , we define the space  ${}^*C_p^{2m+\mu}$  to consist of all functions  $u \in H_p^{2m}(B_R)$  such that  $u \in C_\mu^{2m}(B_r)$  for each r < R with

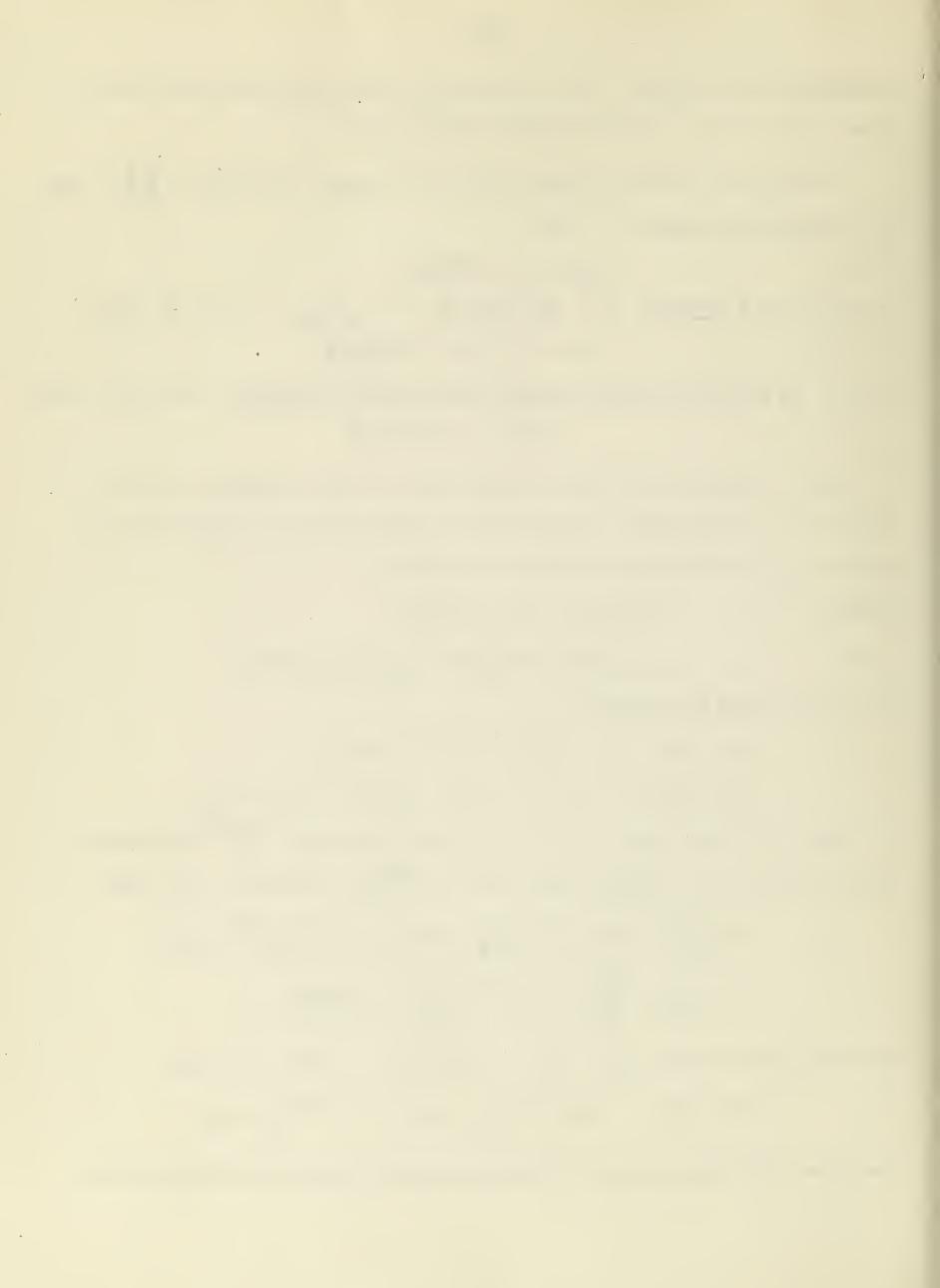
" 
$$\| u \|_{p,R}^{2m+\mu} = \max [\| u \|_{p,R}^{2m}, \sup (R - r)^{\tau+\mu} h_{\mu} (\nabla^{2m} u, B_r)]$$

$$\| \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{p}, \mathbb{R}}^{2m} = \sum_{j=0}^{2m} \mathbb{R}^{-j} \| \nabla^{2m-j} \mathbf{u} \|_{\mathbf{p}}^{0} \quad (\tau = 1)/p)$$

We define the auxiliary space  ${}^*C^{\mu}_p$  to consist of f, etc., such that

\*||| 
$$f \mid ||_{p,R}^{\mu} = \max [||f||_{p,R}^{0}, \sup (R - r)^{\tau + \mu} h_{\mu}(f, B_{r})]$$

Then from the Calderon-Zygmund theorem and a proof like that of Theorem 3.4.2,



we obtain

THEOREM 5.5.2: The transformation  $u = P_R f$  is a bounded operator from  $L_p(B_R)$  to  $H_p^{2m}(B_R)$  and from  $C_p^{\mu}(B_R)$  to  $C_p^{2m+\mu}(B_R)$  with bound independent of R in each case.

LEMMA 5.5.1 (Interpolation lemma): Suppose  $\mu$  is a non-negative measure over the set E and f & L<sub>p</sub>(E,  $\mu$ ) and L<sub>q</sub>(E,  $\mu$ ) where p < q. Then f & L<sub>r</sub>(E,  $\mu$ ) for each r with p < r < q and

$$\|f\|_{r} \le (\|f\|_{q})^{q(r-p)/r(q-p)} \cdot (\|f\|_{p})^{p(q-r)/r(q-p)}$$

The result holds if  $q = + \infty$  if we interpret  $f \in L_q(E, \mu)$  to mean that f is essentially bounded on E.

Proof: For each n, let  $E_n$  be the set of points x in E where  $n^{-1} \le f(x) \le n$ . Then  $\mu(E_n) < \infty$  and the function  $\mathcal{T}_n$  defined by

$$\Psi_n(z) = \int_{E_n} |f_n(x)|^2 d\mu$$
,  $f_n(x) = f(x)$  on  $E_n$  and 0 on  $E - E_n$ 

is analytic for all z and is bounded in any strip  $a \le \text{Re } z \le b$  . Let us first suppose that  $q < +\infty$  . Then

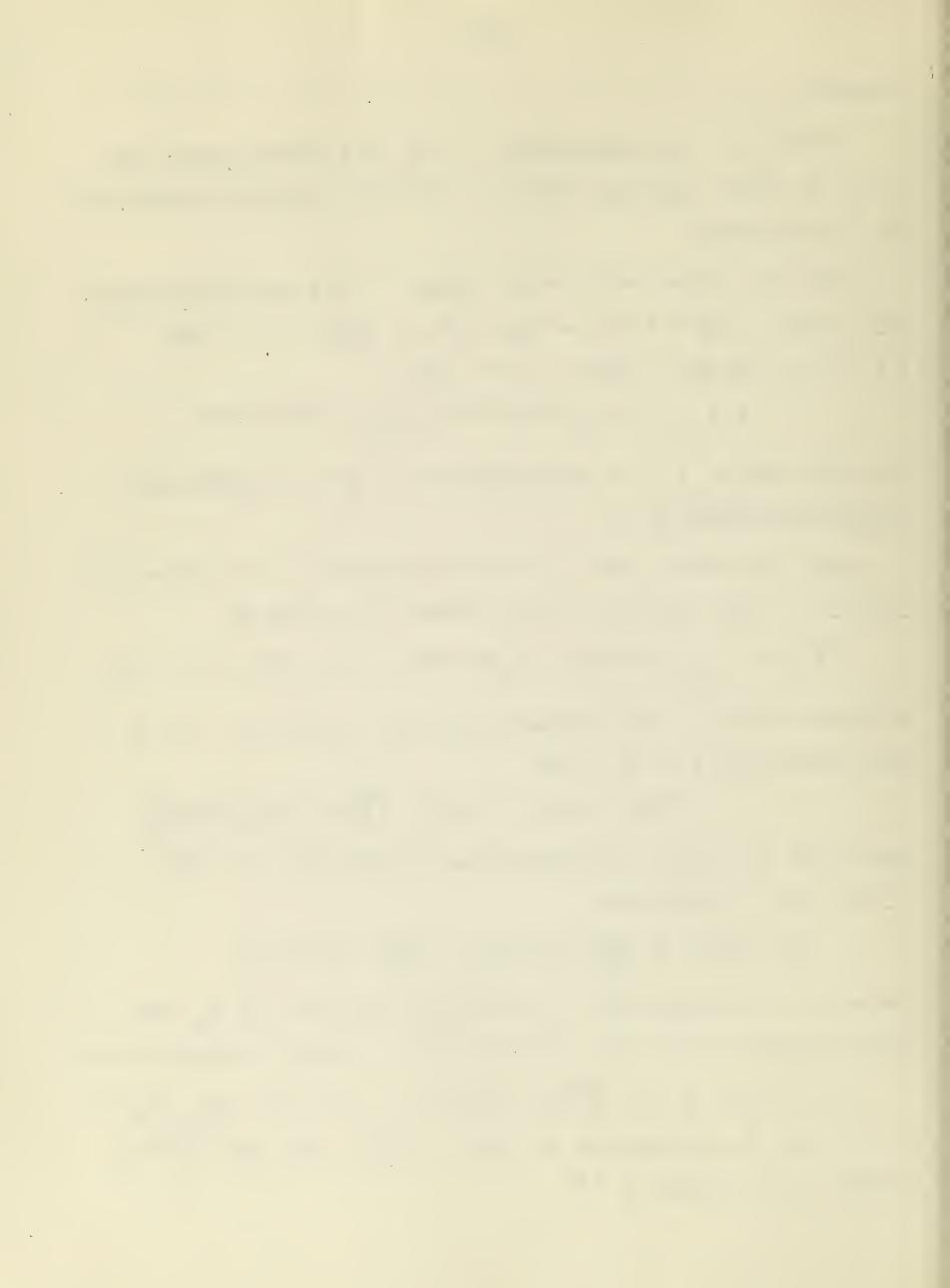
$$|\mathcal{T}_{n}(p + i\eta)| \leq \|f_{n}\|_{p}^{p}, |\mathcal{T}_{n}(q + i\eta)| \leq \|f_{n}\|_{q}^{q}$$

Hence, since  $\log |\mathcal{F}_n(z)|$  is subharmonic and bounded above in the strip  $p \le \text{Re } z \le q$ , we conclude that

$$\log |\mathcal{F}_n(r)| \leq \frac{r-p}{q-p} q \log \|f_n\|_q + \frac{q-r}{q-p} \cdot p \log \|f_n\|_p$$

from which the first result for  $f_n$  follows; the last result for  $f_n$  then follows by letting  $q \longrightarrow \infty$ . The results for f follow by letting  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ .

THEOREM 5.5.3: If  $H_R \in H_p^{2m}(B_R)$  for some p,  $1 , and <math>L_0H_R = 0$  on  $B_R$ , then  $H_R$  is analytic in  $B_R$  and  $H_R \in H_q^{2m}(B_R)$  and to  $C_p^{2m+\mu}(B_R)$  for each q > p, and each r < R



<u>Proof</u>: First extend  $H_R$  to be in  $H_{2,0}^{2m}(B_{2R})$ , have support in  $B_{2R}$ , and such that (Theorem 2.4.1)

$$\|H_{R}\|_{p,2R}^{2m} \leq C(1), m, p) \|H_{R}\|_{p,R}^{2m}$$

Now approximate to  $H_R$  in  $H_p^{2m}(B_{2R})$  by functions  $U \in C_c^{2m}(B_{2R})$ . For each such U, let  $x_0 \in B_{2R}$  and define

$$v_{p}(x) = p^{-1} \int_{B(x,p)} p(\frac{\xi - x}{p}) K(\xi - x_{0}) d\xi = p^{-1} \int_{B(0,p)} f(\frac{y}{p}) K[x - (x_{0} - y_{0})] d\eta$$

$$= p^{-1} \int_{B(x_{0},p)} p(\frac{x_{0} - \zeta}{p}) K(x - \zeta) d\zeta, \quad B(x_{0},p) \in B_{2R}.$$

We note that

(5.5.5) 
$$\operatorname{Lv}_{\rho}(x) = \rho^{-\nu} \varphi(\frac{x_0 - x}{\rho})$$

Since L is self-adjoint, we see that

(5.5.6) 
$$\int_{B_{2R}} [v_0 LU - ULv_0] dx = 0$$

Letting  $\beta \longrightarrow 0$  we obtain

$$(5.5.7) U(\mathbf{x}_0) = \int_{\mathbb{B}_{2R}} K(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}) LU(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

Then (5.5.7) holds for  $H_R$  for  $X_O \in B_R$ . Thus  $H_R$  is analytic in  $B_R$ .

From (5.5.7) for  ${\rm H_R}$  and the fact that LH  $_R$  Z L  $_p({\rm B_{2R}})$  and is 0 in B  $_R$  , we find that

(5.5.8) 
$$|\nabla^{2m} H_{R}(x)| \leq C \int_{B_{2R}} |\hat{\xi} - x|^{-\nu} |LH_{R}(\hat{\xi}) d\hat{\xi}$$

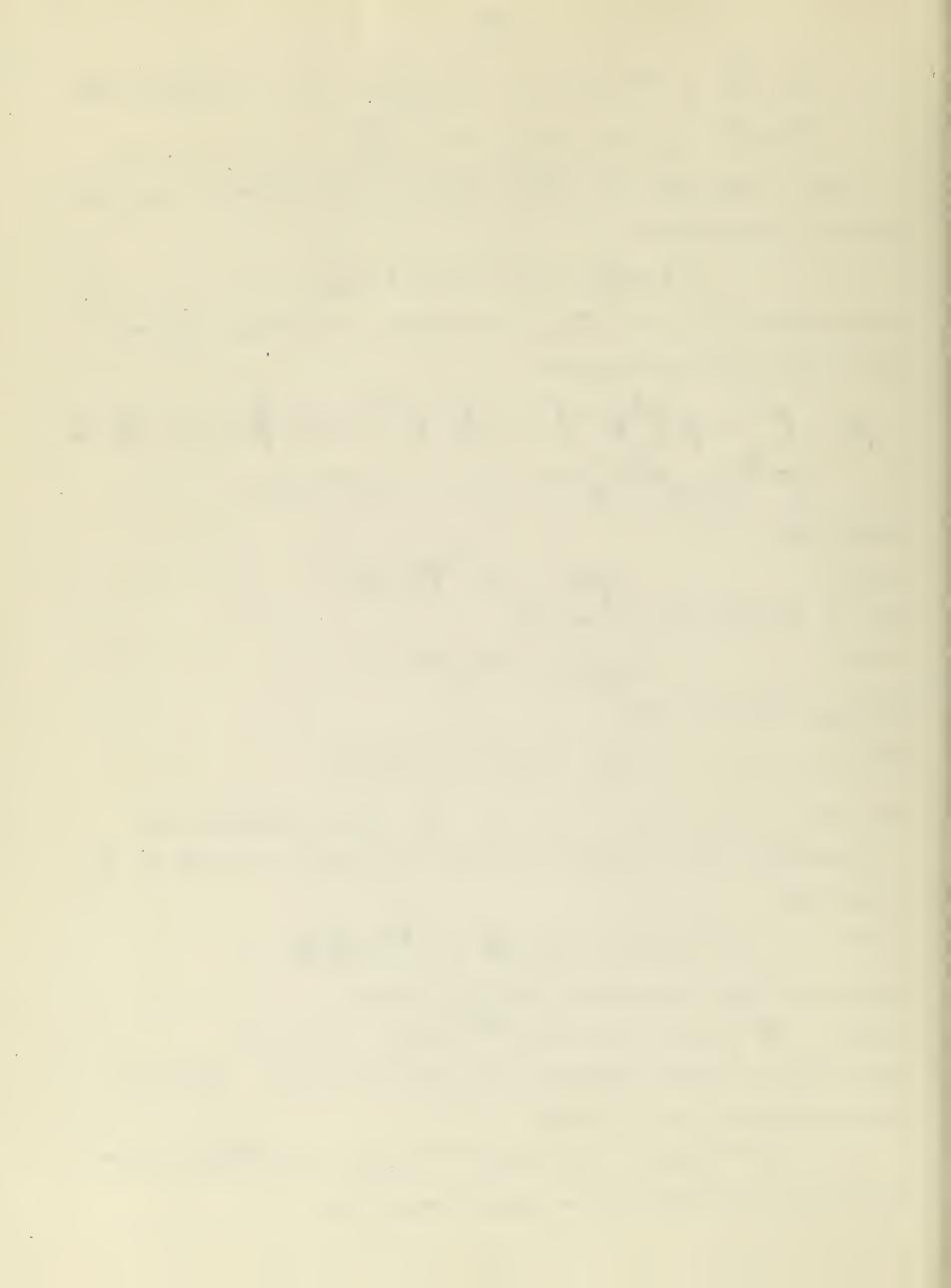
Applying the Holder inequality to (5.5.8), we find that

$$(5.5.9) |\nabla^{2m} H_{R}(x)| \leq C(R - |x|)^{-1/p} ||H_{R}||_{p}^{2m}, |x| \leq r.$$

Then the first conclusion follows from the interpolation lemma. Moreover, by differentiating once more, we obtain

$$|\nabla^{2m+1}H_{\mathbb{R}}(x)| \leq CK \cdot (R - |x|)^{-1-\nu'/p} \leq CK(R - r)^{-\mu-\nu'/p}(r - |x|)^{\mu-1}$$

from which the last result follows, using Theorem 1.5.2.



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